

E13884

CONTENTS

OF THE

SECOND VOLUME.

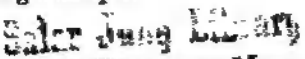
Year 1817
PART III.

GENERAL POLITICS AND COMMERCE.

	Page
Observations concerning the Increase of Mankind, Peo- pling of Countries, &c. - - -	1
Remarks on some of the foregoing Observations, showing particularly the effect which Manners have on Popula- tion. By R. Jackson, Esq. - - -	11
On the price of Corn, and management of the Poor	25
On Smuggling, and its various species - -	34
Observations on War - - -	40
On the laboring Poor - - -	43
Plan for benefiting distant unprovided Countries -	49
On the Institution in Holland to prevent Poverty -	54
Positions to be examined - - -	57
Provisions made in China against Famine - -	60
Note respecting Trade and Manufactures - -	61
Notions concerning Trade and Merchants - -	62

CONTENTS.

	Page
Principles of Trade - - - - -	65
Reflections on Coin in general - - - - -	98
Thoughts concerning the Sugar Islands - - - - -	107
Remarks written by Dr. Franklin, with a pencil, on the margin of a Report of Judge Foster, containing that Judge's Arguments in favor of the right of Impresssing Seamen - - - - -	109
On the Criminal Laws, and the practice of Privateering	119
On the Elective Franchises enjoyed by the small Boroughs in England, with an enclosed paper addressed to Sir Charles Wyvill - - - - -	129
Letter from Sir C. Wyvill in answer to the foregoing	133
Militia preferable to Regular Troops - - - - -	135
Project for preventing Wars - - - - -	137
Some good Whig Principles - - - - -	138


WESTERN
SECTION.
PART IV.

PHILOSOPHICAL SUBJECTS.

Description of a new Musical Instrument composed of Glasses, called the "Armonica," addressed to Father Beccaria - - - - -	141
Answer to some Queries of Monsieur Dubourg respecting the Armonica - - - - -	148
On Fire - - - - -	149

	Page
Curious instance of the effect of Oil on Water -	151
On the Electricity of Fogs - - -	154
Conjecture as to Elephants being natives of America	157
On the Colica Pictorum, and pernicious use of Lead in Distilleries. To Dr. Evans - - -	159
On Chimnies, &c. to Lord Kaimes - -	161
On Astronomical Subjects, Electricity, &c. -	164
On the free use of Air. To Monsieur Dubourg -	172
Of Ventilation, &c. written by Mr. Small, the surgeon, but containing Dr. Franklin's observations on the subject - - - - -	173
On Rain; in a letter to Dr. Percival - -	194
Report on Lightning Conductors for the Powder Maga- zines at Purfleet - - - -	197
Experiments, Observations, and Facts, relative to the utility of long pointed Rods, for securing Buildings from damage by strokes of Lightning -	203
On the Spots in the Sun, a new hypothesis -	216
On the Analogy between Magnetism and Electricity	219
On the choice of Glass for the Leyden Experiment	223
On the Death of persons struck by Lightning -	225
On the mode of rendering Meat tender by Electricity	228
On the nature of Sea Coal - - -	232
Answer to some Inquiries respecting the Art of Swimming	233
Stoves for Public Buildings; in a letter to Dr. Cooper	237
Preparatory Notes and Hints for writing a paper concern- ing what is called <i>Catching Cold</i> -	239

	Page
Letter from Mr. W. Small, on the same subject -	252
On the causes of Colds - - -	253
On the same subject; in a letter to Dr. Rush -	256
Moist Air not unhealthy. To Dr. Percival -	258
On Lightning Conductors. To Mr. Winthrop -	260
On the stilling of Waves by means of Oil; extracted from letters between Dr. Franklin, Dr. Brownrigg, and the Rev. Mr. Farish - - -	261
Attempt to explain the effects of Lightning on the vane of the Steeple of a Church in Cremona; in a letter to Dr. Ingenhausz - - - -	278
On Electricity—The Leyden Bottle, and M. Volta's Ex- periment - - - - -	290
Suppositions and Conjectures towards forming an hy- pothesis for the explanation of the Aurora Borealis	291
On a new-invented Stove. To the Marquis Turgot	297
On the long retention of Infection in Dead Bodies after Sepulture, &c. To Monsieur Vicq D'Azyr	299
On Conductors of Heat, &c. To Dr. Ingenhausz	303
Account of Toads found in the solid of a Stone-quarry	307
Copy of a Letter from Sir John Pringle to Mr. A. Small, annexed to the foregoing - - -	309
Queries on Electricity, from Dr. Ingenhausz, and Dr. Franklin's answers - - - -	310
On the Theory of the Earth, and its Magnetism -	314
On an Electrical Experiment - - -	321
On the shock by the Electric - - - and the density of Glass - - - - -	322

To Mr. Nairne on his Patent Electrical Machine, and the effects of Lightning on the Eyes of Animals killed by it	- - - - -	324
Proposal for a slowly sensible Hygrometer for certain purposes; addressed to Mr. Nairne	- -	325
On the Comet seen in Yorkshire, 1783. To Mr. Rittenhouse	- - - - -	332
On Balloons, and their probable importance; in a letter to Dr. Ingenhausz	- - - - -	334
On Fire, addressed to B. Vaughan	- -	336
Meteorological Imaginations and Conjectures	-	337
Physical and Meteorological Conjectures, Observations, and Suppositions	- - - - -	341
On Electricity—A three-wheeled Clock—Gravitation of bodies affected by the Sun and Moon—Conjectures on Tides, &c.	- - -	353
On the causes and cure of Smoky Chimnies	-	359
New method of Warming and keeping Rooms Warm; in a letter to James Bowdoin	- -	396
Description of a new Stove for burning Pit-coal, and consuming all its Smoke; written at Sea, 1785		408
On Improvements in Navigation; addressed to Monsieur Le Roy	- - - - -	431
Remarks on the Gulph Stream	- - -	476
On the pernicious quality of Lead, &c. addressed to B. Vaughan, Esq.	- - - - -	489
On Thermometers	- - - - -	493

On Balloons,—Pigeons killed by Lightning,—addressed to Mons. Le Roy - - - -	495
On the Utility of Lightning Conductors, addressed to M. Landriani - - - -	496
On the Earth's Magnetism, addressed to the Hon. J. Bow- doin - - - -	498
Process to be observed in making large Sheets of Paper in the Chinese manner - - -	501
New Theory of Light, addressed to David Rittenhause, Esq. - - - -	504

MEMOIRS
OF
BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

PART III.

GENERAL POLITICS AND COMMERCE.

**OBSERVATIONS CONCERNING THE INCREASE OF
MANKIND, PEOPLING OF COUNTRIES, &c.**

Written in Pennsylvania, 1751.

1. TABLES of the proportion of marriages to births, of deaths to births, of marriages to the number of inhabitants, &c. formed on observations made upon the bills of mortality, christenings, &c. of populous cities, will not suit countries; nor will tables formed and observations made on full settled old countries, as Europe, suit new countries, as America.

2. For people increase in proportion to the number of marriages, and that is greater in proportion to the ease and convenience of supporting a family. When families can be easily supported, more persons marry, and earlier in life.

3. In cities, where all trades, occupations, and offices are full, many delay marrying till they see how to bear the charges of a family; which charges are greater in cities, and luxury is more common; many live single during life, and continue servants to families, journeymen to trades, &c. Hence cities do not, by natural generation, supply themselves with inhabitants; the deaths are more than the births.

4. In countries full settled, the same must be nearly the same, all lands being occupied and improved to the height; those who cannot get land, must labor for others, that have it; when laborers are plenty, their wages will be low; by low wages a family is supported with difficulty; this difficulty deters many from marriage, who therefore long continue servants and single. Only, as the cities take supplies of people from the country, and thereby make a little more room in the country, marriage is a little more encouraged there, and the births exceed the deaths.

5. Great part of Europe is fully settled with husbandmen, manufacturers, &c. and therefore cannot much increase in people. America is chiefly occupied by Indians, who subsist mostly by hunting. But the hunter, of all men, requires the greatest quantity of land from whence to draw his subsistence, (the husbandman subsisting much less, the gardener on still less, and the manufacturer requiring least of all) the Europeans found

America as fully settled, as it well could be by hunters; yet these, having large tracts, ■■■■ easily prevailed on to part with portions of territory to the ■■■■ comers, who did not much interfere with the natives in hunting, and furnished them with many things they wanted.

6. Land being thus plenty ■ America, and ■ cheap, ■ that ■ laboring man, that understands husbandry, can, in ■ short time, ■■■■ money enough to purchase ■ piece of ■■■■ land, sufficient for ■ plantation, whereon he may subsist ■ family; such are not afraid to marry: for if they even look far enough forward to consider how their children, when grown up, are to be provided for, they see, that ■■■■ land is to be had at rates equally easy, all circumstances considered.

7. Hence marriages in America ■■■■ more general, and ■■■■ generally early, than in Europe. And if it is reckoned there, that there is but ■■■■ marriage *per* ■■■■ among 100 persons, perhaps ■■■■ may here reckon two; and if in Europe, they have but four births to a marriage, (many of their marriages being late) we may here reckon eight, of which, if one half grow up, and ■■■■ marriages are made, reckoning ■■■■ with another, at twenty years of age, ■■■■ people must at least ■■■■ doubled every twenty years.

8. But notwithstanding this increase, so vast ■ ■■■■ territory of North America, that it will require many ■■■■ ■■■■ settle it fully; and ■■■■ it is fully set-

tled, labor will never be cheap here, where no man continues long ■ laborer for others, but gets ■ plantation of his own ; no man continues long ■ journeyman to ■ trade, but goes among those ■■ settlers, and sets up for himself, &c. Hence labor is no cheaper now, in Pennsylvania, than it ■■ thirty years ago, though so many thousand laboring people have been imported from Germany and Ireland.

9. The danger, therefore, of these colonies interfering with their mother country in trades, that depend on labor, manufactures, &c. is too remote to require the attention of Great Britain.

10. But, in proportion to the increase of the colonies, ■ vast demand is growing for British manufactures ; a glorious market, wholly in the power of Britain, in which foreigners cannot interfere, which will increase, in ■ short time, ■■ beyond her power of supplying, though her whole trade should be to her colonies. ■ ■ ■ ■ *

12. It is ■■ ill-grounded opinion, that, by the labor of slaves, America may possibly vie in cheapness of manufactures with Britain. The labor of slaves can never be so cheap here, as the labor of working men is in Britain. Any one may compute it. Interest of money is in the colonies from 6 to ■■ per cent. Slaves, ■■ with another, cost 30% sterling per head. Reckon then the interest of the first purchase of ■ slave, the insurance ■ risk ■ his life, ■■ clothing and diet, expenses in ■■ sick-

ness and loss of time, loss by his neglect of business, (neglect is natural to the man, who is not to be benefited by his own ■■■■ or diligence) expense of ■ driver to keep him at work, and his pilfering from time to time, almost every slave being, from the nature of slavery, ■ thief, and compare the whole amount with the wages of ■ manufacturer of iron or wool in England, you will see, that labor is much cheaper there, than it ever ■■■■ be by negroes here. Why then will Americans purchase slaves? Because slaves may be kept ■ long as ■ ■■■■ pleases, or has occasion for their labor, while hired men are continually leaving their master (often in the midst of his business) and setting up for themselves. § 8.

13. As the increase of people depends on the encouragement of marriages, the following things must diminish ■ nation, viz. 1. The being conquered; for the conquerors will engross as many offices, and exact ■ much tribute or profit on the labor of the conquered, as will maintain them in their new establishment; and his diminishing the subsistence of the natives discourages their ■■■■ riages, and ■ gradually diminishes them, while the foreigners increase. 2. Loss of territory. Thus the Britons, being driven into Wales, and crowded together in ■ barren country, insufficient to support such great numbers, diminished, ■ the people bore ■ proportion to the produce; while the Saxons increased on their abandoned lands, till the island

became full of English. And, ■■■ the English now driven into Wales by some foreign nation, there would, in ■ few years, be ■■ more Englishmen in Britain, than there ■■ now people in Wales. 3. Loss of trade. Manufactures, exported, draw subsistence from foreign countries for numbers, who ■■ thereby enabled to marry and raise families. If the nation be deprived of any branch of trade, and no new employment is found for the people occupied in that branch, it will soon be deprived of ■ many people. 4. Loss of food. Suppose a nation has a fishery, which not only employs great numbers, but makes the food and subsistence of the people cheaper: if another nation becomes master of the seas, and prevents the fishery, the people will diminish in proportion as the loss of employ and dearness of provision makes it more difficult to subsist a family. 5. Bad government and insecure property. People not only leave such ■ country, and, settling abroad, incorporate with other nations, lose their native language, and become foreigners; but the industry of those that remain being discouraged, the quantity of subsistence in the country is lessened, and the support of ■ family becomes more difficult. So heavy taxes tend to diminish a people. 6. The introduction of slaves. The negroes brought into the English sugar islands, have greatly diminished the whites there: the poor are by this means deprived of employment, while a few families acquire

vaſt eſtates, which they ſpend on foreign luxuries; and, educating their children in the habits of thoſe luxuries, the income is needed for the ſupport of one, that might have maintained one hundred. The whites, who have ſlaves, not laboring, are enfeebled, and therefore not ſo generally prolific; the ſlaves being worked too hard, and ill fed, their conſtitutions are broken, and the deaths among them are more than the births; ſo that a continual ſupply is needed from Africa. The northern colonies, having few ſlaves, increaſe in whites. Slaves alſo pejorate the families that uſe them; the white children become proud, diſgusted with labor, and, being educated in idleneſs, are rendered unfit to get a living by induſtry.

14. Hence the prince, that acquires new territory, if he finds it vacant, or removes the natives to give his people room;—the legiſlator, that makes effectual laws for promoting trade, increaſing employment, improving land by more or better tillage, providing more food by fisheries, ſecuring property, &c.;—and the man that invents new trades, arts or manufactures, or new improvements in huſbandry, may be properly called *fathers of their nation*, as they are the cauſe of the generation of multitudes, by the encouragement they afford to marriage.

15. As to privileges granted to the married, (ſuch as the *jus trium liberorum* among the Romans) they may haſten the filling of a country, that has

been thinned by war or pestilence, ■ that has otherwise vacant territory, but cannot increase ■ people beyond the means provided for their subsistence.

16. Foreign luxuries, and needless manufactures, imported and used in ■ nation, do, by the same reasoning, increase the people of the nation that furnishes them, and diminish the people of the nation that ■■ them. Laws therefore that prevent such importations, and, on the contrary, promote the exportation of manufactures to be consumed in foreign countries, may be called (with respect to the people that make them) *generative laws*, as, by increasing subsistence, they encourage marriage. Such laws likewise strengthen ■ country doubly, by increasing its own people, and diminishing its neighbors.

17. Some European nations prudently refuse to consume the manufactures of East India :—they should likewise forbid them to their colonies ; for the gain to the merchant is not to be compared with the loss, by this means, of people to the nation.

18. Home luxury in the great increases the nation's manufacturers employed by it, who ■■ many, and only tends to diminish the families that indulge in it, who are few. The greater the ■■■■ fashionable expense of any rank of people, the more cautious they are of marriage. Therefore

luxury should never be suffered to become common.

19. The great increase of offspring in particular families is not always owing to greater fecundity of nature, but sometimes to examples of industry in the heads, and industrious education, by which the children are enabled better to provide for themselves, and their marrying early is encouraged from the prospect of good subsistence.

20. If there be ■ sect, therefore, in our nation, that regard frugality and industry ■ religious duties, and educate their children therein, more than others commonly do, such sect must consequently increase more by natural generation than any other sect in Britain.

21. The importation of foreigners into ■ country that has as many inhabitants as the present employments and provisions for subsistence will bear, will be in the end no increase of people, unless the new-comers have more industry and frugality than the natives, and then they will provide more subsistence, and increase in the country; but they will gradually eat the natives out. Nor is it necessary to bring in foreigners to fill up any occasional vacancy in ■ country; for such vacancy (if the laws are good, § 14, 16) will soon be filled by natural generation. Who can ■■■■ find the vacancy made in Sweden, France, ■ other warlike nations, by the plague of heroism ■■ years ago; in France, by the expulsion of the protestants; in England, by

the settlement of her colonies ; in Guinea, by a hundred years' exportation of slaves, that has blackened half America? The thinness of the inhabitants in Spain is owing to national pride, and idleness, and other causes, rather than to the expulsion of the Moors, to the making of settlements.

There is, in short, bound to the prolific nature of plants animals, but what is made by their crowding and interfering with each other's means of subsistence. Was the face of the earth vacant of other plants, it might be gradually sowed and overspread with kind only, as, for instance, with fennel : and it empty of other inhabitants, it might, in a few ages, be replenished from one nation only, as, for instance, with Englishmen. Thus there are supposed be now upwards of million of English souls in North America (though it is thought scarce 80,000 have been brought over sea), and yet perhaps there is not the fewer in Britain, but rather many more, account of the employment the colonies afford to manufacturers at home. This million doubling, suppose but in years, will, in another tury. be more than the people of England, and the greatest number of Englishmen will be this side the water. What an accession of power to the British empire by sea as well as land ! What increase of trade and navigation ! What numbers of ships and seamen ! We have been here but little

more than a hundred years, and yet the force of our privateers in the late war, united, was greater, both in men and guns, than that of the whole British navy in Queen Elizabeth's time. How important an affair then to Britain is the present treaty for settling the bounds between her colonies and the French? and how careful should she be to secure herself enough, since the world depends so much the increase of her people?

23. In fine, a nation well regulated is like a polypus: take away a limb, its place is supplied: cut it in two, and each deficient part shall speedily grow out of the part remaining. Thus, if you have room and subsistence enough, as you may, by dividing, make ten polypuses out of one, you may, of one, make many nations, equally populous and powerful: or, rather, increase the nation tenfold in numbers and strength. * * *

Remarks on some of the foregoing Observations, showing particularly the Effect which Manners have on Population.

FROM RICHARD JACKSON,¹ ESQ. OF LONDON, TO BENJAMIN FRANKLIN, AT PHILADELPHIA.

Dear Sir,

It is now three years since I received your

¹ In 1751. ² A water insect, well known to naturalists.

³ An English barrister of eminence an intimate friend of Dr. Franklin.

excellent *Observations* ■ *the Increase of Mankind*, &c. in which you have with so much sagacity and accuracy shown in what manner, and by what causes, that principal means of political grandeur is best promoted; and have ■ well supported those just inferences you have occasionally drawn, concerning the general state of ■ American colonies, and the views and conduct of some of the inhabitants of Great Britain.

You have abundantly proved, that natural fecundity is hardly to be considered, because the *vis generandi*, ■ far ■ we know, is unlimited; and because experience shows, that the numbers of nations are altogether governed by collateral causes, and among these none of ■ much force as quantity of subsistence, whether arising from climate, soil, improvement of tillage, trade, fisheries, secure property, conquest of new countries, or other favorable circumstances.

As I perfectly concurred with you in your sentiments ■ these heads, ■ have been very desirous of building somewhat ■ the foundation you have there laid; and was induced, by your hints in the twenty-first section, to trouble you with some thoughts on the influence ■ have always had, and ■ always likely to have, on the numbers of people, and their political prosperity in general.

The end of every individual is its own private good. The rules it observes, in the pursuit of this

good, ■■■■ system of propositions, almost every ■■■■ founded in authority; that is, deriving their weight from the credit given to ■■■■ or more persons, and not from demonstration.

And this, in the most important ■ well ■ the other affairs of life, is the ■■■■ even of the wisest and philosophical part of the human species; and that it should be ■ is the less strange, when we consider, that it is perhaps impossible to prove, that *being*, or life itself, has any other value than what is set ■ it by authority.

A confirmation of this may be derived from the observation, that, in every country in the universe, happiness is sought upon a different plan; and, ■■■■ in the same country, ■■ ■■ it placed by different ages, professions, and ranks of men, in the attainment of enjoyments utterly unlike.

These propositions, ■ well ■ others framed upon them, become habitual by degrees, and, ■ they govern the determination of the will, I call them *moral habits*.

There is another set of habits, that have the direction of the members of the body, that I call therefore *mechanical habits*. These compose what we commonly call the *arts*, which are more or less liberal or mechanical, as they ■■■■ or less partake of assistance from the operations of the mind.

The *cumulus* of the moral habits of each individual, is the ■■■■■■ of that individual; the *cu-*

modus of the manners of individuals makes up the manners of a nation.

The happiness of individuals is evidently the ultimate end of political society; political welfare, the strength, splendor, and opulence of the state, have been always admitted, both by political writers, and the valuable part of mankind in general, to conduce to this end, and are therefore desirable.

The causes that advance or obstruct any one of these three objects, are external or internal. The latter may be divided into physical, civil, and personal; under which last head I comprehend the moral and mechanical habits of mankind. The physical causes are principally climate, soil, and number of subjects; the civil, are government and laws; and political welfare is always in a ratio composed of the force of these particular causes; a multitude of external causes, and all these internal ones, not only control and qualify, but are constantly acting on, and thereby insensibly, as well sensibly, altering another, both for the better and the worse, and this not excepting the climate itself.

The powerful efficacy of causes in increasing a people is manifest from the instance you mention, Quakers; among them industry and frugality multiply and extend the number of the necessities of life: to manners of a like kind are owing the populousness of Holland, Switzerland, China,

Japan, and parts of Indostan, &c., in every one of which, the force of extent of territory and fertility of soil is multiplied, or their want compensated, by industry and frugality.

Neither nature nor art have contributed much to the production of subsistence in Switzerland, yet we see frugality preserves and even increases families that live in their fortunes, and which, in England, we call the gentry; and the observation we cannot but make in the southern part of this kingdom, that those families, including all superior ones, are gradually becoming extinct, affords the clearest proof that luxury (that is, a greater expense of subsistence than in prudence a man ought to consume) is destructive and proportionable want of it; but in Scotland, as in Switzerland, the gentry, though with another they have not one-fourth of the income, increase in number.

And here I cannot help remarking, by the bye, how well founded your distinction is between the increase of mankind in old and settled countries in general, and particularly in the case of families of condition. In America, where the expenses are confined to necessities, and those necessities are cheap, it is common to see above one hundred persons descended from one living old man. In England, it frequently happens, where a man has seven, eight, or more children, there has not been a descendant in the next generation, occasioned by the difficulties the num-

ber of children has brought on the family, in a luxurious dear country, and which have prevented their marrying.

That this is more owing to luxury than mere want, appears from what I have said of Scotland, and more plainly from parts of England remote from London, in most of which the necessaries of life are nearly as dear, in some dearer, than London, yet the people of all ranks marry and breed up children.

Again: among the lower ranks of life, none produce so few children as servants. This is, in some measure, to be attributed to their situation, which hinders marriage, but is also to be attributed to their luxury and corruption of manners, which are greater than among any other set of people in England, and are the consequence of a view of the lives and persons of a superior rank, than any inferior rank, without a proper education, ought to have.

The quantity of subsistence in England has unquestionably become greater for many ages; and yet, if the inhabitants are more numerous, they certainly are not so in proportion to the improvement of the means of support. I am apt to think there are few parts of this kingdom that have not been at some former time more populous than at present. I have several cogent reasons for thinking that of great part of the counties I am most intimately acquainted with; but, that they were pro-

bably not all most populous at the same time, and ■■■■ of our towns ■■■■ visibly and vastly grown in bulk, I dare not suppose, ■■ judicious men have done, that England is less peopled than heretofore.

The growth of our towns is the effect of ■ change of manners, and improvement of arts, common to all Europe; and though it is not imagined that it has lessened the country growth of necessities, it has evidently, by introducing ■ greater consumption of them, (an infallible consequence of ■ ■■■■ tion's dwelling in towns) counteracted the effects of ■■ prodigious advances in the arts.

But however frugality may supply the place, or prodigality counteract the effects, of the natural ■■ acquired subsistence of a country, industry is, beyond doubt, a ■■■■ efficacious ■■■■ of plenty than any natural advantage of extent ■■ fertility. I have mentioned instances of frugality and industry united with extent and fertility. In Spain and Asia Minor, we see frugality joined to extent and fertility, without industry; in Ireland we once saw the same; Scotland had then none of them but frugality. The change in these two countries is obvious to every one, and it is owing to industry not yet very widely diffused in either. The effects of industry and frugality in England, ■■ surprising; both the rent and the value of the inheritance of land, depend on them greatly ■■■■ than on nature; and this, though there is no con-

siderable difference in the prices of ■■ markets. Land of equal goodness lets for double the rent of other land lying ■ the same county, and there ■ many years' purchase difference between different counties, where rents are equally well paid and secure.

Thus manners operate upon the number of inhabitants; but of their silent effects upon a civil ■■stitution, history, and even our own experience, yield ■ abundance of proofs, though they are not uncommonly attributed to external ■■■■■ their support of ■ government against external force is so great, that it is a ■■■■■ maxim among the advocates of liberty, that ■ free government ■■■ ever dissolved, or overcome, before the manners of its subjects were corrupted.

The superiority of Greece over Persia ■■■ singly owing to their difference of manners; and that, though all natural advantages ■■■ ■ the side of the latter, to which I might add the civil ones; for though the greatest of ■■ civil advantages, liberty, ■■■ ■ the side of Greece, yet that added no political strength to her, but in proportion ■ it operated on her manners; and, when they ■■■ corrupted, the restoration of their liberty by ■■ Romans overturned the remains of their power.

Whether the manners of ancient ■■■ were at any period calculated to promote ■■ happiness of individuals, ■ ■ not my design to examine; but that their ■■■ and the effects of those man-

ners on their government and public conduct, founded, enlarged, and supported, and afterwards overthrew their empire, is beyond all doubt. One of the effects of their conquest, furnishes us with a strong proof, how prevalent even beyond quantity of subsistence; for, when the custom of bestowing the citizens of Rome corn enough to support themselves and families become established, and Egypt and Sicily produced the grain that fed the inhabitants of Italy, this became less populous every day, and the *jus trium liberorum* but an expedient that could not balance the want of industry and frugality.

But corruption of manners did not only thin the inhabitants of the Roman empire, it rendered the remainder incapable of defence long before its fall, perhaps before the dissolution of the republic; that without standing disciplined armies, composed of whose moral habits principally, and mechanical habits secondarily, made them different from the body of the people, the Roman empire had been a prey to the barbarians many ages before it was.

By the mechanical habits of the soldiery, I mean their discipline and the art of war; and that this is but a secondary quality appears from the inequality that has in all ages been between raw though well disciplined armies and veterans; and more from the irresistible force a single moral habit, religion,

nas conferred on troops, frequently neither disciplined nor experienced.

The military ~~of the~~ of the *noblesse* in France, compose the chief force of that kingdom; and ~~the~~ enterprising manners and restless dispositions of the inhabitants of Canada, have enabled a handful of ~~the~~ to harass our populous, and, generally, less martial colonies; yet neither ~~the~~ of the value they ~~have~~ at first, because overbalanced by the defect they occasion of other habits that would produce more eligible political good: and military manners in a people are not necessary in an age and country where such ~~may be~~ may be occasionally formed and preserved among men enough to defend the state; and such a country is Great Britain; where, though the lower class of people are by ~~the~~ means of a military cast, yet they make better soldiers than even the *noblesse* of France.

The inhabitants of this country, a few ages back, ~~were~~ to the populous and rich provinces of France, what Canada is now to the British colonies. It is true, there ~~was~~ less disproportion between their natural strength; but I mean, that the riches of France were a real weakness, opposed to the military ~~strength~~ founded upon poverty and a rugged disposition, compared to the character of the English; but it must be remembered, that ~~at~~ this time the ~~character~~ of a people were not distinct from that of their soldiery; for the use of standing

armies has deprived ■ military people of the advantages they before had ■■■■ others; and though it has been often said, that civil wars give power, because they render all men soldiers, I believe this has only been found true in internal wars following civil wars, and not in external ones; for now, in foreign wars, ■ small army, with ample means to support it, is of greater force than ■■■■ more numerous, with less. This last fact has often happened between France and Germany.

The ■■■■ of supporting armies, and consequently the power of exerting external strength, are best found in the industry and frugality of the body of ■ people living under ■ government and laws that encouraged ■■■■■■ for ■■■■■■ is ■ this day almost the only stimulus that forces every one to contribute ■ share of labor for the public benefit.

But such is the human frame, and the world is ■ constituted, that it is a hard matter to possess one's self of a benefit, without laying one's self open to ■ loss on some other side; the improvements of ■■■■ of one sort often deprave those of another: thus we see industry and frugality under the influence of commerce, which I call ■ commercial spirit, tend to destroy, as well as support, the government it flourishes under.

Commerce perfects the arts, but more the mechanical than the liberal, and this for an obvious reason; it softens and enervates the ■■■■

Steady virtue and unbending integrity are seldom to be found where a spirit of commerce pervades every thing; yet the perfection of commerce is, that every thing should have its price. We every day see its progress, both to ■■■ benefit and detriment here. Things, that *boni mores* forbid to be set to sale, are become its objects, and there are few things indeed *extra commercium*. The legislative power itself has been in *commercio*, and church livings are seldom given without consideration, even by sincere Christians, and, for consideration, not seldom to very unworthy persons. The rudeness of ancient military times, and the fury of more modern enthusiastic ones, are worn off; ■■■ the spirit of forensic contention is astonishingly diminished, all marks of manners softening; but luxury and corruption have taken their places, and seem the inseparable companions of commerce and the arts.

I cannot help observing, however, that this is much ■■■ the case in extensive countries, especially at their metropolis, than in other places. It is an old observation of politicians, and frequently made by historians, that small states always best preserve their ■■■. Whether this happens from the greater room there is for attention in the legislature, or from the less ■■■ there is for ■■■■, ambition and avarice, it is a strong argument, among others, against ■■ incorporating union of the colonies in America, or ■■■ a federal one, that may

tend to the future reducing them under one government.

Their power, while disunited, is less, but their liberty, as well as manners, is secure; and, considering the little danger of any conquest to be made upon them, I had rather they should suffer something through disunion, than see them under a general administration less equitable than that concerted at Albany.'

I take it, the inhabitants of Pennsylvania are both frugal and industrious beyond those of any province in America. If luxury should spread, it cannot be extirpated by laws. We are told by Plutarch, that Plato used to say, *It was a hard thing to make laws for the Cyrenians, a people abounding in plenty and opulence.*

But from what I set out with, it is evident, if I be not mistaken, that education only can stem the torrent, and, without checking either true industry or frugality, prevent the sordid frugality and laziness of the old Irish, and many of the modern Scotch, (I mean the inhabitants of that country, those who leave it for another being generally industrious,) or the industry, mixed with luxury, of this capital, from getting ground, and, by rendering ancient manners familiar, produce a

* See an account of this plan in MEMOIRS OF THE LIFE, Part II. p. 105. 4to. I have the plan itself,—page 1 of the volume.

reconciliation between disinterestedness and commerce; a thing we often see, but almost always in men of a liberal education.

To conclude: when we would form a people, soil and climate may be found at least sufficiently good; inhabitants may be encouraged to settle, and even supported for a while; a good government and laws may be framed, and the arts may be established, or their produce imported: but many necessary moral habits are hardly to be found among those who voluntarily offer themselves in times of quiet at home, to people new colonies; besides that the moral as well as mechanical habits, adapted to a mother-country, are frequently not suited to the new settled one, and to external events, many of which are always unforeseen. Hence it is that we have so many such fruitless attempts to settle colonies, at an immense public and private expense, by several of the powers of Europe: and it is particularly observable, that none of the English colonies became any way considerable, till the necessary manners were born and grew up in the country, excepting those to which singular circumstances at home forced manners fit for the forming a new state. I am, Sir, &c.

R. JACKSON.

ON THE PRICE OF CORN, AND MANAGEMENT OF
THE POOR.¹*To Messieurs the Public.*

I am ■ of that class of people that feeds you all, and at present is abused by you all;—in short, I am ■ farmer.

By your newspapers we are told, that God had sent ■ very short harvest to some other countries

¹ The following extracts of ■ letter, signed *Columella*, and addressed to the editors of the *Repository for select Papers on Agriculture, Arts, and Manufactures*, (see Vol. 1. p. 352,) will again serve the purpose of preparing those who read it, for entering upon this paper.

“GENTLEMEN,

“There is now publishing in France ■ periodical work, called *Ephemerides du Citoyen*, in which several points interesting to those concerned in agriculture, ■ from time to time discussed by ■ able hands. In looking ■ one of the volumes of this work a few days ago, I found ■ little piece written by one of our countrymen, and which ■ vigilant neighbors had taken from the *London Chronicle* in 1766. The author is a gentleman well known to every ■ of letters ■ Europe; and perhaps there is none, in this age, to whom ■ kind in general ■ indebted.

■ That this piece may not be lost to our ■ country, I beg you will give it ■ place in your *Repository*: it ■ written in favor of the farmers, when they suffered so much abuse in ■ public papers, and ■ also plundered by the mob in many places.”

■ principles on which ■ piece is grounded, are given more at large in the *Political Fragments*, Art. 2. B.V.

of Europe. I thought this might be in favor of Old England; and that ~~the~~ ~~the~~ should get a good price for our grain, which would bring millions among us, and make us flow in money: that, to be sure, is scarce enough.

But the wisdom of government forbade the exportation.¹

Well, says I, then we must be content with the market price at home.

No, say my lords the mob, you sha'n't have that. Bring your corn to market if you dare;—we'll sell it for you, for less money, or take it for nothing.

Being thus attacked by both ends of *the constitution*, the head and the tail of government, what am I to do?

Must I keep my corn in the barn to feed, and increase the breed of rats?—be it so;—they cannot be less thankful than those I have been used to feed.

Are ~~the~~ farmers the only people to be grudged the profits of ~~the~~ honest labor?—And why? One of the late scribblers against us, gives a bill of fare of the provisions at my daughter's wedding,

¹ It is not necessary to repeat in what degree Dr. Franklin respected the ministers, to whom he alludes.—The embargo upon corn ~~was~~ but a single measure; which, it is enough ~~to~~ say, a host of politicians thought well advised, but ill defended.—Of the great and honorable services of the Earl of ~~the~~ country, ~~the~~ Franklin has borne the amplest testimony. B. V.

and proclaims to all the world, that ■ had the insolence to eat beef and pudding!—Has he not read the precept in the good book, *Thou shalt not muzzle the mouth of the ■ that treadeth out the ■*; ■ does he think us less worthy of good living than our oxen?

O, but the manufacturers! the manufacturers! they ■ to be favored, and they must have bread at a cheap rate!

Hark ye, Mr. Oaf;—the farmers live splendidly, you say. And pray, would you have them hoard the money they get? Their fine clothes and furniture, do they make them themselves, or for one another, and ■ keep the money among them? Or, do they employ these your darling manufacturers, and so scatter it again all over the nation?

The wool would produce me a better price, if it were suffered to go to foreign markets; but that, Messieurs the Public, your laws will not permit. It must be kept all at home, that our *dear* manufacturers may have it the cheaper. And then, having yourselves thus lessened ■ encouragement for raising sheep, you curse ■ for the scarcity of mutton!

I have heard my grandfather say, that the farmers submitted to the prohibition ■ the exportation of wool, being made to expect and believe that when the manufacturer bought his wool cheaper, they should also have their cloth cheaper. But the deuce ■ bit. ■ has been growing dearer

and dearer from that day to this. How so? Why, truly, the cloth is exported; and that keeps up the price.

Now, if it be a good principle, that the exportation of a commodity is to be restrained, that our people at home may have it the cheaper, stick to that principle, and go thorough stitch with it. Prohibit the exportation of your cloth, your leather, and shoes, your iron ware, and your manufactures of all sorts, to make them all cheaper at home. And cheap enough they will be, I will warrant you—till people leave off making them.

Some folks seem to think they ought never to be easy till England becomes another Lubberland, where it is fancied the streets are paved with penny rolls, the houses tiled with pancakes, and chickens, ready roasted, cry, Come eat me!

I say, when you are sure you have got a good principle, stick to it, and carry it thorough. I hear it is said, that though it ~~was~~ *necessary and right* for the m——y to advise a prohibition of the exportation of corn, yet it ~~was~~ *contrary* a law; and also, that though it ~~was~~ *contrary* a law for the mob to obstruct waggons, yet it was *necessary and right*. Just the ~~same~~ thing to a tittle. Now they tell me, an act of indemnity ought to pass in favor of the m——y, to secure them from the consequences of having acted illegally. If so, pass another in favor of the mob. Others say, ~~that~~ of ~~the~~ mob ought to be hanged, by way of

example. If so,—but I say **■ ■ ■ ■ ■** than I have said before, *when you are sure that you have got a good principle, go thorough with it.*

You say, poor laborers cannot afford to buy bread at **■** high price, unless they had higher wages. Possibly. But how shall we farmers be able to afford our laborers higher wages, if you will not allow **■ ■** to get, when we might have it, a higher price for our corn?

By all that I can learn, we should at least have had **■** guinea **■** quarter more, if the exportation had been allowed. And this money England would have got from foreigners.

But, it seems, we farmers must take **■ ■** much less, that the poor may have it so much cheaper.

This operates then as **■** tax for the maintenance of the poor. A very good thing, you will say. But I ask, why **■** partial tax? Why laid on us farmers only? If it be a good thing, pray, Messieurs the Public, take your share of it, by indemnifying us a little out of your public treasury. In doing a good thing, there is both honor and pleasure;—you **■ ■ ■** welcome to your share of both.

For my own part, I am not **■ ■** well satisfied of the goodness of this thing. I **■ ■ ■** for doing good to the poor, but I differ in opinion about the means. I think the best way of doing good to the poor, is not making them easy *in* poverty, but leading **■ ■** driving them **■ ■** of it. In my youth I travelled much, and I observed in different countries, that

the ■ public provisions were made for the poor, the less they provided for themselves, and of ■ became poorer. And, ■ the contrary, the less ■ done for them, the ■ they did for themselves, and became richer. There is no country in the world where ■ many provisions ■ established for them; ■ many hospitals to receive them when they are sick or lame, founded and maintained by voluntary charities; ■ many alms-houses for the aged of both sexes; together with ■ solemn general law, made by the rich, ■ subject their estates to a heavy tax for the support of the poor. Under all these obligations, ■ ■ poor modest, humble, and thankful? and do they use their best endeavors to maintain themselves, and lighten our shoulders of this burthen? On the contrary, I affirm that there is no country in the world in which the poor ■ more idle, dissolute, drunken, and insolent. The day you passed that act, you took away from before their eyes the greatest of all inducements to industry, frugality, and sobriety, by giving them ■ dependence on somewhat else than ■ careful accumulation during youth and health, for support in age or sickness. In short, you offered ■ premium for ■ encouragement of idleness, and you should ■ now wonder that it has had its effect in the ■ crease of poverty. Repeal that law, and you will ■ see a change in their manners—*Saint Monday* and *Saint Tuesday* will ■ ■ to be holi-

days: *SIX days shall thou labor*, though [] of the old commandments, long treated [] out of date, will again be looked upon as a respectable precept; industry will increase, and with it plenty among the lower people; their circumstances will mend, and [] will be done for their happiness by inuring them to provide for themselves, than could be done by dividing all your estates among them.

Excuse me, Messieurs the Public, if upon this *interesting* subject I put you to the trouble of reading a little of *my* []; I [] I have lately read [] great deal of *yours*; and therefore from you (at least from those of you who [] writers) I deserve a little indulgence.

I am yours, &c.

ARATOR.*

* The late [] Owen [] being [] time [] [] employed in preparing a *Digest of [] Poor Laws*, communicated a copy of it to Dr. Franklin, for his advice. Dr. Franklin recommended [] provision should be made therein, for the printing on a sheet of paper and dispersing, in each parish in the kingdom, annual accounts of every disbursement and receipt of its officers. It is obvious to remark how greatly this must tend to check both the officers and the poor, and to inform and interest the parishioners [] respect [] parish concerns. Some of [] American colonies actually practise this measure with a [] which might justify its adoption here. [England.]

Later improvements, however, in the English poor laws, have not only been meditated, [] attempted. [] particular, [] 1773, an act of parliament was proposed, in order to invite the poor to set apart money [] the purchase of annuities, in all

parishes and townships managing the poor's-rate, that could admit of, and would formally consent to the regulation. Some of the particulars of this scheme were as follows. The annuities, which to accommodate the poor were payable quarterly, were not to exceed 20*l.*, and the principal purchase-money was to be received of less amount than 5*l.* at a time; the parties might choose any age for the purchase between 15 and 75, but they could not receive the annuity before 50, men, and 35, if women, the annuity in the mean time increasing in proportion as they had waited; the annuities also could knowingly be granted to any but those entitled to legal parish settlements, nor for any other lives than those of the grantees, though they were saleable, provided the first refusal of them was offered to the grantors. The proper officers of the parish or township (who were constituted the grantors), in order to effect these purposes, were to be erected into a corporation with a seal; the grants (which were framed according to a prescribed and cheap form, and protected from frauds) were to be in several ways authenticated and preserved; the annuities were to be taken up in the parliamentary fund, after the rate of 3 per cent. interest, negotiable at the bank of England; and the accounts, after being properly kept and signed, were to be annually audited and recorded with the justices at the quarter-sessions. The relief to the poor, in case of delay of payment, was summary, and almost instant; but in return, the corporation might receive gifts and legacies, and have the benefit of neglected annuities, to the easing of the poor's-rate; besides other advantages given them by the calculations, particularly that arising from a low standard of interest, which necessarily rendered the terms of the annuity in proportion dearer to the poor. It was thought that domestic industry and economy were concerned, in thus rescuing somewhat from profligacy and unhealthy debauchery, in applying the surplus of health and of strength to the relief of the penury and infirmities of the aged, and in promoting good habits; yet without depriving the state

the whole of effectual labor, or leaving it incumbered with the charge of individuals, who might assist themselves. This scheme, which was proposed by Baron Maseres, regulated and superintended as to the calculations by Dr. Price, and supported by George Savile and Mr. Dowdeswell, only passed the commons: it was rejected by the lords; chiefly because landed interest there was alarmed at the poor's-rate being made the security for the annuities, in case of deficiency in the funds.

However, the burthen of the poor's-rate was still felt too considerable not to demand inquiry; and an act was passed, calling for a general abstract of the sums made by the rate of the poor. It appeared in consequence, that there were—

Totals raised by the poor's-rate, from Easter 1775, to Easter 1776.		Of which there was expended on the poor alone,	
In England	1,679,585 <i>l.</i>	- - - - -	1,523,164 <i>l.</i>
And in Wales	40,732 <i>l.</i>	- - - - -	33,641 <i>l.</i>
	1,720,317 <i>l.</i>	- - - - -	1,556,805 <i>l.</i>

The remainder of the sum raised was applied to county uses, except about 26,000*l.* which seems not to have been brought into the year's account. Nearly one-twentieth of the sum expended on the poor, was for the single article of rent; and the litigations concerning settlements, and the removal of paupers, made another article of nearly half the sum amount. In Davenant's estimate of the poor's-rate, made towards the latter end of Charles the Second's reign, by a reasonable medium, he states, of several years:—

The gross sums are, For England	631,609 <i>l.</i>
And for Wales	35,753 <i>l.</i>
	<u>665,362<i>l.</i></u>

So that while the poor's rate of Wales remained in a manner stationary in that period, that of England does not fall much short of being trebled.

ON SMUGGLING, AND ITS VARIOUS SPECIES.¹

SIR,

THERE are many people that would be thought, and even think themselves, *honest* men, who fail nevertheless in particular points of honesty; deviating from that character sometimes by the prevalence of mode or custom, and sometimes through mere inattention; ■ that their *honesty* is partial only, and not *general* or universal. Thus, one who would scorn to over-reach you in a bargain, shall make ■ scruple of tricking you a little now and then at cards; another that plays with the utmost fairness, shall with great freedom cheat you in the sale of a horse. But there is no kind of dishonesty, into which otherwise good people more easily and frequently fall, than that of defrauding government of its ■ by smuggling when they have an opportunity, or encouraging smugglers by buying their goods.

Since the year 1776, ■ farther public ■ to have been taken respecting the regulation of the poor. (*Written in 1779.*)

See, on the above subjects, the proposed ■ of parliament, with ■ and instructions, printed for Eyre ■ Strahan; also the Abstract of ■ Returns of the Poor's-rate, printed for ditto; Dr. Price's Payments, 3d. edit. p. 115; and ■ Davenant, vol. i. p. 39.) B.V.

¹ This letter is extracted from the *London Chronicle* for November 24, 1767; ■ is addressed to the printer of the newspaper.

I [] into these reflections the other day, [] hearing two gentlemen of reputation discoursing about a small estate, which [] of them [] inclined to sell, and the other to buy; when the seller, in recommending the place, remarked, that its situation was very advantageous [] this account, that being [] the sea-coast in a smuggling country, [] had frequent opportunities of buying many of the expensive articles used in a family, (such as tea, coffee, chocolate, brandy, wines, cambrics, Brussels laces, French silks, and [] kinds of India goods,) 20, 30, and in [] articles 50 *per cent.* cheaper than they could be had in the more interior parts, of traders that paid duty. The other *honest* gentleman allowed all this to be an advantage, but insisted that the seller, in [] advanced price he demanded on that account, rated the advantage much above its value. And neither of them seemed to think dealing with smugglers, a practice that [] *honest* man (provided he got his goods cheap) had the least [] to be ashamed of.

At a time when the load of our public debt, and the heavy expense of maintaining our fleets and armies to be ready for [] defence [] occasion, makes it necessary not only to continue old taxes, but often to look out for new ones; perhaps it may not be unuseful to [] this matter in a light that few [] [] have considered it in.

The people of Great Britain, under the happy constitution of this country, have ■ privilege few other countries enjoy, that of choosing the third branch of the legislature; which branch has alone the power of regulating their taxes. Now whenever the government finds it necessary for the common benefit, advantage, and safety of the nation, for the security of our liberties, property, religion, and every thing that is dear to us, that certain ■■■■ shall be yearly raised by taxes, duties, &c. and paid into the public treasury, thence to be dispensed by government for those purposes, ought not every *honest* ■■■■ freely and willingly to pay his just proportion of this necessary expense? Can he possibly preserve a right to that character, ■ by any fraud, stratagem, or contrivance, he avoids that payment in whole or in part?

What should we think of a companion, who having supped with his friends at ■ tavern, and partaken equally of the joys of the evening with the rest of us, would nevertheless contrive, by some artifice, to shift his share of the reckoning upon others, in order to go off scot-free? If a man who practised this, would, when detected, be d d med and called ■ scoundrel, what ought he to be called, who can enjoy ■ the inestimable benefits of public society, and yet by smuggling, or dealing with smugglers, contrive to evade paying his just share of the expense, ■ settled by his ■■ representatives in parliament; and wrongfully

throw it upon his honester and perhaps much poorer neighbors? He will perhaps be ready to tell me, that he does not wrong his neighbors; he scorns the imputation; he only cheats the king ■ little, who is very able to bear it. This however is a mistake. The public treasure is the treasure of the nation, to be applied to national purposes. And when ■ duty is laid for a particular public and necessary purpose, if through smuggling that duty falls short of raising the sum required, and other duties must therefore be laid to make up the deficiency; all the additional ■■ laid by the new duties and paid by other people, though it should amount to ■ more than a halfpenny or a farthing per head, is so much actually picked out of the pockets of those other people by the smugglers and their abettors and encouragers. Are they then any better or other than pickpockets? and what mean, low, rascally pickpockets must those be, that can pick pockets for halfpence and for farthings ■

I would not however be supposed to allow in what I have just said, that cheating the king is a less offence against honesty, than cheating the public. The king and the public in this case ■ different ■■■ for the same thing; but if we consider the king distinctly, ■ will not lessen the crime: it is ■ justification of a robbery, that the person robbed was rich and able to bear it. The king ■■ ■ much right to justice as the meanest

of his subjects; and he is truly the father of his people, those that rob him fall under the scripture woe, pronounced against the son that robbeth his father, and saith it is no sin.

Mean this practice is, do we not daily people of character and fortune engaged in it for trifling advantages to themselves? Is any lady ashamed to request of a gentleman of her acquaintance, that when he returns from abroad, he would smuggle her home a piece of silk lace from France or Flanders? Is any gentleman ashamed to undertake and execute the commission? Not in the least. They will talk of it freely, even before others whose pockets they are thus contriving to pick by this piece of knavery.

Among other branches of the revenue, that of the post-office is, by a late law, appropriated to the discharge of our public debt, to defray the expenses of the state. None but members of parliament, and a few public officers, have now a right to avoid, by a frank, the payment of postage. When any letter not written by them on their business, is franked by any of them, it is a hurt to the revenue; an injury which they must now take pains to conceal by writing the whole superscription themselves. And yet such is the insensibility to justice in this particular, that nothing more than to see, in a reputable company, a very honest gentleman or lady declare, his or her intention to frank a letter, is a nation of three-

pence by a frank and, without blushing, apply to one of the very legislators themselves, with a modest request, that he would be pleased to become an accomplice in the crime, and assist in the perpetration.

There are those who by these practices take a great deal in a year out of the public purse, and put the money into their private pockets. If, passing through a place where public treasure is deposited, a man takes the opportunity of clandestinely pocketing and carrying off a guinea, is he not truly and properly a thief? And if another evades paying into the treasury a guinea he ought to pay in, and applies it to his own use, when he knows it belongs to the public as much as that which has been paid in, what difference is there in the nature of the crime, or the baseness of committing it?

Some laws make the receiving of stolen goods equally penal with stealing, and upon this principle, that if there were no receivers there would be few thieves. Our proverb too, says truly, *the receiver is as bad as the thief*. By the same reasoning, there would be few smugglers, if there were none who knowingly encouraged them by buying their goods, we may say that the encouragers of smuggling are as bad as the smugglers; that as smugglers are a kind of thieves, both equally deserve the punishments of thievery.

In this view of wronging the revenue, what

must think of those who evade paying for their wheels and their plate, in defiance of law and justice, and yet declaim against corruption and speculation, if their own hands and hearts pure and unsullied? The Americans offend grievously, when, contrary to our laws, they smuggle goods into their country; and yet they had no hand in making those laws. I do not however pretend from thence to justify them: but I think the offence much greater in those who either directly or indirectly have been concerned in making the very laws they break. And when I hear them exclaiming against the Americans, and for every little infringement of the acts of trade, or obstruction given by a petty mob to an officer of our customs in that country, calling for vengeance against the whole people as REBELS and TRAITORS, I cannot help thinking there still those in the world who can see a mote in their brother's eye, while they do not discern a beam in their; and that the old saying is as true now ever it was, *one may better steal a horse, than another look over the hedge.* B. F.

OBSERVATIONS ON WAR.

By the original law of nations, and extirpation the punishment of injury. Humanising by degrees, it admitted slavery instead of death: a farther step was, the exchange of pri-

soners instead of slavery; another, to respect ■■■■ the property of private persons under conquest, and be content with acquired dominion. Why should not this law of nations go ■■ improving? Ages have intervened between its several steps; but ■■ knowledge of late increases rapidly, why should not those steps be quickened? Why should it not be agreed to, ■■ the future law of nations, that in any war hereafter the following description of men should be undisturbed, have the protection of both sides, and be permitted to follow their employments in security? viz.

1. Cultivators of the earth, because they labor for the subsistence of mankind.

2. Fishermen, for the same ■■■■.

3. Merchants and traders in unarmed ships, who accommodate different nations by communicating and exchanging the necessities and ■■■■ niences of life.

4. Artists and mechanics, inhabiting and working in open towns.

It is hardly necessary to add, that the hospitals of enemies should be unmolested—they ought to be assisted. It is for the interest of humanity in general, that the occasions of war, and the inducements to it, should be diminished. ■■ rapine be abolished, ■■ of the encouragements ■■ ■■ is taken away; and peace therefore ■■■■ likely to continue and be lasting.

The practice of robbing merchants is the high remnant of the ancient piracy—though it may be accidentally beneficial to particular persons, is far from being profitable to all engaged in it, to the nation that authorises it. In the beginning of a war, rich ships are surprised and taken. This encourages the first adventurers to fit out more armed vessels; and many others do so. The enemy at the same time become more careful; arm their merchant ships better, and render them not so easy to be taken: they go also more under the protection of convoys. Thus, while the privateers to take them are multiplied, the vessels subject to be taken, and the chances of profit, are diminished; so that many cruises are made wherein the expenses overgo the gains; and, as is the case in other lotteries, though particulars have got prizes, the mass of adventurers are losers, the whole expense of fitting out all the privateers during a war, being much greater than the whole amount of goods taken.

Then there is the national loss of all the labor of many during the time they have been employed in robbing; who besides spend what they get in riot, drunkenness, and debauchery; lose their habits of industry; are rarely fit for any sober business after a peace, and serve only to increase the number of highwaymen and house-breakers. Even the few who have been fortunate; by sudden wealth, led to expen-

sive living, the habit of which continues when the means of supporting ■ cease, and finally ruins them ; a just punishment for their having wantonly and unfeelingly ruined many honest, innocent traders and their families, whose substance ■■ employed in serving the ■■■■■ interest of mankind.

ON THE LABORING POOR.

TO THE EDITOR OF * * * APRIL, 1768.

SIR,

I have met with much invective in the papers for these two years past, against the hard-heartedness of the rich, and much complaint of the great oppressions suffered in this country by the laboring poor. Will you admit ■ word ■ two ■ the other side of the question ? I do not propose to be an advocate for oppression ■ oppressors. But when I ■■ that the poor are, by such writings, exasperated against the rich, and excited to insurrections, by which much mischief is done, ■■ some forfeit their lives, I could wish the true state of things ■■ better understood, the poor ■■ by these busy writers ■■ uneasy and unhappy than their situation subjects them to be, ■■ the nation not brought into disrepute among foreigners, by public groundless accusations of ourselves, as if the rich in England had ■■ ■■

passion for the poor, and Englishmen wanted common humanity.

In justice, then, to this country, give me leave to remark, that the condition of the poor here is, by far, the best in Europe; for that, except in England and her American colonies, there is not in any country of the known world, not ■ in Scotland or Ireland, ■ provision by law to enforce ■ support of the poor. Everywhere else necessity reduces to beggary. This law was not made by the poor. The legislators were men of fortune. By that act they voluntarily subjected their ■ estates, and the estates of all others, to the payment of ■ tax, for the maintenance of the poor, incumbering those estates with ■ kind of rent charge for that purpose, whereby the poor are vested with an inheritance, ■ it were, in all the estates of the rich. I wish they ■ benefitted by this generous provision, in any degree equal to the good intention with which it ■ made, and is continued. But I fear the giving mankind ■ dependance on any thing for support, in age ■ sickness, besides industry and frugality during youth and health, tends ■ Catter our natural indolence, to encourage idleness and prodigality, and thereby to promote and increase poverty, the very evil it was intended to cure; thus multiplying beggars instead of diminishing them.

Besides ■ tax, which the rich in England have subjected themselves ■ in behalf of the poor,

amounting in ■■■ places to five ■ six shillings in the pound, of the annual income, they have, by donations and subscriptions, erected numerous schools in various parts of the kingdom, for educating, gratis, the children of the poor, in reading and writing; and in many of those schools the children ■ also fed and clothed. They have erected hospitals at ■ immense expense, for the reception and cure of the sick, the lame, the wounded, and the insane poor, for lying-in women, and deserted children. They ■ also continually contributing towards making up losses occasioned by fire, by storms, ■ by floods, and to relieve the poor in severe seasons of frost, in times of scarcity, &c. in which benevolent and charitable contributions no nation exceeds us.—Surely, there is ■■■ gratitude due for so many instances of goodness.

Add to this all the laws made to discourage foreign manufactures, by laying heavy duties on them, ■ totally prohibiting them, whereby the rich ■ obliged to pay much higher prices for what they wear and consume, than if the trade was open. These are ■ many laws for the support of ■■ laboring poor, made by the rich, and continued at their expense: all the difference of price between ■■■ ■■■ and foreign commodities, being ■ much given by ■■ rich to our poor; who would indeed be enabled by it to get by degrees above poverty, if they did not, as too generally they do, consider every increase of wages, only as some-

thing enables them to drink and work less; so that their distress in sickness, age, of scarcity, continues to be the same if laws had been made in their favor.

Much malignant censure have writers bestowed upon the rich for their luxury and expensive living, while the poor are starving, &c.; not considering that what the rich expend, the laboring poor receive in payment for their labor. It may be a paradox if I should assert, that laboring poor do in every year receive *the whole of the nation*; I mean not only the public revenue, also the revenue clear income of all private estates, equivalent to the whole.—In support of this position I reason thus: the rich do not work for another. Their habitations, furniture, clothing, carriages, food, ornaments, and every thing, in short, that they and their families and consume, is the work or produce of the laboring poor, who are and must be continually paid for their labor in producing the same. In these payments the of private estates are expended, for most people live up to their incomes. In clothing or provision for troops, in arms, ammunition, ships, tents, carriages, &c. &c. (every particular the produce of labor), much of the public revenue is expended. The pay of officers, civil and military, and of the private soldiers and sailors, requires the rest; and they spend that also in paying for what produced by the laboring poor. I

allow that some estates may increase by the ~~spending~~ spending less than their income; but then I conceive that other estates do at the ~~same~~ time diminish, by the ~~same~~ spending more than ~~the~~ income, so that when the enriched want to buy ~~more~~ land, they easily find lands in the hands of ~~the~~ impoverished, whose necessities oblige them to sell; and thus this difference is equalled. I allow also that part of the expense of the rich is in foreign produce ~~and~~ manufactures, for producing which the laboring poor of other nations must be paid; but then I say, ~~we~~ must first pay ~~our~~ own laboring poor for an equal quantity of our manufactures or produce to exchange for those foreign productions, ~~and~~ we must pay for them in money, which money not being the natural produce of ~~the~~ ~~country~~ ~~try~~, must first be purchased from abroad, by sending out its value in the produce or manufactures of this country, for which manufactures our laboring poor ~~are~~ to be paid. And indeed if we did not export more than ~~we~~ import, ~~we~~ could have no money ~~at~~ all. I allow farther, that there ~~are~~ middle men, who make ~~a~~ profit, and ~~some~~ get estates, by purchasing the labor of the poor, and selling it ~~at~~ advanced prices to the rich; but then they cannot enjoy that profit, or the incomes of estates, but by spending them in employing and paying our laboring poor, in ~~some~~ shape ~~and~~ other, for ~~the~~ products of industry.—Even beggars, pensioners, hospitals, and all ~~these~~ are supported by charity, spend their

incomes in the same ■■■■■ So that finally, ■
I said at first, ■■■ *laboring poor receive annually the*
whole of the clear revenues of the nation, and from
us they ■■■ have ■■ more.

If it be said that their wages are too low, and that they ought to be better paid for their labor, I heartily wish that any ■■■■ could be fallen upon ■■ do it consistent with their interest and happiness; but ■■ the cheapness of other things is owing to the plenty of those things, ■■ the cheapness of labor is in most cases owing to the multitude of laborers, and to their under-working ■■■ another in order to obtain employment. How is this to ■■ remedied? A law might be made to raise their wages; but if ■■■ manufactures ■■■ too dear, they will not vend abroad, and ■■ that part of employment will fail, unless by fighting and conquering, we compel other nations to buy our goods whether they will or no, which some have been mad enough ■■ times to propose. Among ourselves, unless ■■ give ■■■ working people less employment, how ■■■ ■■ for what they do pay them higher than we do? Out of what fund is the additional price of labor to be paid, when ■■■ present incomes are, ■■ it were, mortgaged to them? Should they get higher wages, would that make them less poor, if in consequence they worked fewer days of the week proportionably? I have said ■■ law might be made ■■ raise their wages; but I doubt much whether it could be executed ■■ any purpose, ■■

less another law, ■■■ indeed almost obsolete, could at the same time be revived and enforced ; ■ law, I mean, that many have often heard and repeated, but few have ever duly considered. *Six days shalt thou labor.* This is ■ positive ■ part of the commandment, as that which says, *the SEVENTH day thou shalt rest* ; but ■ remember well to observe the indulgent part, and ■ think of the other. *St. Monday* is generally ■ duly kept by ■ working people as *Sunday* ; the only difference is, that instead of employing their time cheaply at church, they are wasting it expensively at the ale-house. I am, Sir, yours, &c.

MEDIUS.

PLAN FOR BENEFITING DISTANT UNPROVIDED COUNTRIES.

By Messrs. Franklin and Dalrymple.

Aug. 29, 1771.

THE country called in the maps *New Zealand*, has been discovered by the *Endeavour*, to be two islands, together ■ large as *Great Britain*: these islands, named *Acpy-nomawée* and *Tooy-poennammoo*,

* These proposals were printed upon a ■ of paper, ■ distributed. The parts written by Dr. Franklin ■ ■ Dalrymple are easily distinguished.

blessings when they have received them ; and show their gratitude to their great Benefactor by the only [] in their power, promoting the happiness of his other children ?

“ *Ceres* is said to have made a journey through many countries to teach the [] of corn, and the art of raising it. For this single benefit the grateful nations deified her. How much [] may Englishmen deserve such honor, by communicating the knowledge and [] not of corn only, but of all the other enjoyments earth [] produce, and which they are now in possession of. *Communiter bona profundero, Deum est.*

“ Many voyages have been undertaken with views of profit or of plunder, or to gratify resentment ; to procure some advantage to ourselves, or do some mischief to others : but a voyage is now proposed to visit a distant people on the other side the globe ; not to cheat them, not to rob them, not to seize their lands, [] enslave their persons ; but merely to do them good, and make them, [] far as in our power lies, to live as comfortably as ourselves.

“ It [] a landable wish that all the nations of the earth [] connected by a knowledge of each other, and a mutual exchange of benefits : but a commercial nation particularly should wish for a general civilisation of mankind, since trade is always carried [] to much greater extent with people who have the [] and conveniencies of life, than it [] be with naked savages. We may there-

fore hope in this undertaking to be of some service to our country, ■ well ■ to those poor people who, however distant from us, are in truth related to us, and whose interests do, in ■ degree, concern every one who can say *Homo sum*," &c.

Scheme of a voyage by subscription, to convey the conveniencies of life, as fowls, hogs, goats, cattle, corn, iron, &c. to those remote regions which are destitute of them, and to bring from thence such productions ■ be cultivated in this kingdom to the advantage of society, in a ship under the command of Alexander Dalrymple.

Catt ■ bark, from the coal trade, of 350

tons, estimated at about - - - - - £2000

Extra expenses, stores, boats, &c. - - - - - ■

5000

To be manned with 60 men at

4l. per ■ per month

240

12

2680 per annum

3

Wages and
provisions

8640 for three years - - - ■

13640

Cargo included, supposed - - - - - ■

The expenses of this expedition are calculated for *three* years; but the greatest part of the amount of wages will not be wanted till the ship returns, and a great part of the expense of provisions will be saved by what is obtained in the course of the voyage by barter or otherwise, though it is proper to make provision for contingencies.

ON THE INSTITUTION IN HOLLAND TO PREVENT
POVERTY.

— *Craven Street, June 17th, 1772.*

“ To Mr. Maséres,

“ Sir,

“ I thank you for the pamphlet proposing to establish Life Annuities in parishes, &c.: I think it an excellent one. In compliance with your wish, page 25, 26, I send it back with a few marginal notes (perhaps of some great importance) made in reading it, requesting it may be returned to me.

“ In page 118 of Dr. Price’s Book on Annuities, second edition, you will find mention made of an institution in Holland. He had that information from me. Those houses are handsome neat buildings with very comfortable apartments; some form the sides of a square, with glass plats and gravel walks, flowers, &c., and some have little separate gardens behind each apartment. Those for men are called *Oude Mannen Hayzen*, for women *Oude*

Vrouwen Hayzen. I think the different kinds sometimes make different sides of the square. There is a chapel for prayers, a common kitchen, and a common hall, in which they dine together. Two persons such as best like one another, and choose to associate, generally lodged in one apartment, though in separate beds, that they may be at hand to assist each other in case of sudden illness in the night, and otherwise be mutually helpful. The directors have also a room to meet in, who form rules for the government of the house, hear complaints, and rectify what is amiss. Gentlemen are directors of the *Oude Mannen Haus*, ladies of the *Oude Vrouwen Haus*. A committee of two is chosen every year, who visit often, see the rules observed, and take of the management. At the end of the year, these are thanked off, and as an honorable memorial of their service, their names, with the year they served, are added to the gold-letter list on the walls of the room. All the furniture is neat and convenient, the beds and rooms kept clean and sweet by the servants of the house, and the people appear to live happily.

These institutions are calculated to prevent poverty, which is rather a better thing than relieving it: for it keeps always in the public eye a state of comfort and repose, with freedom from in old age, held forth as an encouragement to much industry and frugality in youth may at least

serve to raise the required sum (suppose 50*l.*) is to intitle a woman at 50 to a retreat in these houses. And in acquiring this sum, habits may be acquired that produce such affluence before this age arrives, to make the retreat unnecessary, and never claimed. Hence if 50*l.* would (as by your table) intitle a man at 50 years of age to an annuity of 19*l.* 3*s.* 6*d.*¹/₄, I suppose that in such a house, entertainment and accommodation to a much greater value might be afforded him, because the right to live there is not transferable, and therefore every unclaimed right is an advantage to the house, while annuities would probably be all claimed. Then it seems to me that the prospect of a distant annuity will not be so influencing on the minds of young people as the constant view of the comfort enjoyed in those houses, in comparison of which, even the payment and receipt of the annuities are *private transactions*.

"I write this in hopes you will, after consideration, favor me with your opinion whether (in addition to your plan, which will still have all its advantages for smaller sums) one or more such houses in every county would not probably be of great use in still further promoting industry and frugality among the lower people, and of course lessening the enormous weight of the poor tax?

"I enclose a little piece I wrote in America to encourage and strengthen these important virtues,

of which I beg your acceptance, and am, with great esteem,

"Sir, your most obedient humble servant,

— B. FRANKLIN."

POSITIONS TO BE EXAMINED.

1. All food or subsistence for mankind arise from the earth and waters.

2. Necessaries of life that are not foods, and other conveniencies, have their values estimated by the proportion of food consumed while we are employed in procuring them.

3. A small people with a large territory may subsist on the productions of nature, with no other labor than that of gathering the vegetables and catching the animals.

4. A large people with a small territory finds these insufficient, and to subsist, must labor the earth, to make it produce greater quantities of vegetable food, suitable for the nourishment of men and of the animals they intend to eat.

5. From this labor arises a *great increase* of vegetable and animal food, and of materials for clothing, as flax, wool, silk, &c. The superfluity of these is wealth. With this wealth men pay for the labor employed in building houses, cities, &c. which are therefore only subsistence then metamorphosed.

6. *Manufactures* are only *another shape* into which ■■ much provisions and subsistence are turned, ■■ were *equal in value* to the manufactures produced. This appears from hence, that the manufacturer does not, in fact, obtain from the employer for his labor, ■■■■ than a mere subsistence, including raiment, fuel, and shelter; all which derive their value from the provisions consumed in procuring them.

7. The produce of the earth, thus converted into manufactures, may be ■■■■ easily carried to distant markets than before such conversion.

8. *Fair commerce* is, where equal values are exchanged for equal, the expense of transport included. Thus if it costs A in *England* ■■ much labor and charge to raise a bushel of wheat, as it costs B in *France* to produce four gallons of wine, then ■■■ four gallons of wine the fair exchange for ■ bushel of wheat, A and B meeting at half distance with their commodities to make the exchange. The advantage of this fair commerce is, that each party increases the number of his enjoyments, having, instead of wheat alone, or wine alone, the use of both wheat and wine.

9. Where the labor and expense of producing both commodities are known to both parties, bargains will generally be fair and equal. Where they are known ■■■■ party only, bargains will often ■■ unequal, knowledge taking its advantage of ignorance.

10. Thus he that carries 1000 bushels of wheat abroad to sell, may not probably obtain so great a profit thereon ■ if he had first turned the wheat into manufactures, by subsisting therewith the workmen while producing those manufactures: since there are many expediting and facilitating methods of working, not generally known; and strangers to the manufactures, though they know pretty well the expense of raising wheat, ■■ unacquainted with those short methods of working, and thence being apt to suppose ■■■ labor ■■■ employed in the manufactures than there really is, ■■ more easily imposed on in their value, and induced to allow more for them than they ■■ honestly worth.

11. Thus the advantage of having manufactures in a country does not consist, ■ is commonly supposed, in their highly advancing the value of rough materials, of which they are formed; since, though six-pennyworth of flax may be worth ■■ when worked into lace, yet the very cause of ■■ being worth 20s. is, that besides the flax, it has cost 19s. 6d. in subsistence to the manufacturer. But the advantage of manufactures is, that under their shape provisions may be more easily carried to ■ foreign market; and by their means our traders may more easily cheat strangers. Few, where it is not made, are judges of the value of lace. The importer may demand forty, and perhaps get thirty shillings for that which cost him but twenty.

12. Finally, there seem to be but three ways for a nation to acquire wealth. The first is by *war*, as the *Romans* did, in plundering their conquered neighbors. This is *robbery*.—The second by *commerce*, which is, generally, *cheating*.—The third by *agriculture*, the only *honest way*; wherein a nation receives a real increase of the seed thrown into the ground, in a kind of continual miracle wrought by the hand of God in his favor, as a reward for his innocent life, and his virtuous industry. B. F.

April 4, 1769.

PROVISION AGAINST FAMINE.

Extract of a Letter to Dr. Percival.

I have somewhere read that in China an account is yearly taken of the number of people, and the quantities of provision produced. This account is transmitted to the Emperor, whose ministers can thence foresee a scarcity likely to happen in any province, and from what province it can best be supplied in good time. To facilitate the collecting of this account, and prevent the necessity of entering houses and spending time in asking and answering questions, each house is furnished with a little board to be hung without the door, during a certain time each year; on which board are marked certain words, against which the inhabitant is to mark number or quantity, somewhat in this manner:

**Men,
Women,
Children,
Rice or Wheat,
Flesh, &c.**

All under 16 ■ accounted children, and all above, ■ and women. Any other particulars which the government desires information of, are occasionally marked on the ■ boards. Thus the officers appointed to collect the accounts in each district, have only to pass before the doors, and enter into their book what they find marked on the board, without giving the least trouble to the family. There is a penalty ■ marking falsely, and as neighbors must know nearly the truth of each other's account, they dare not expose themselves by a false one, to each other's accusation. Perhaps such a regulation is scarcely practicable with us.'

NOTE RESPECTING [REDACTED] MANUFACTURES.

Suppose a country, X, with three manufactures, **■ cloth, silk, iron**, supplying three **■■■■■** countries, A, B, C, but is desirous of increasing the vent, and

¹ The above passage is taken from Dr. Percival's Essays, Vol. III. p. 25, being an extract from a letter written to him by Dr. Franklin, on the subject of his observations on the state of population in Manchester and other adjacent places. B. V.

raising the price of cloth in favor of her ~~own~~ clothiers.

In order to this, she forbids the importation of foreign cloth from A.

A, in return, forbids silks from X.

Then the silk-workers complain of a decay of trade.

And X, to content them, forbids silks from B.

B, in return, forbids iron-ware from X.

Then the iron-workers complain of decay.

And X forbids the importation of iron from C.

C, in return, forbids cloth from X.

What is got by all these prohibitions?

Answer.—All four find their common stock of the enjoyments and conveniencies of life diminished.

London, July 7, 1767.

B. F.

NOTIONS CONCERNING ~~THE~~ AND MERCHANTS.

1. Were it possible for men, remote from each other, to know easily one another's wants and abundances, and practicable for them on all occasions conveniently to meet and make fair exchanges of their respective commodities, there would then be no ~~man~~ of the middle ~~man~~ or merchant; such a profession would not exist.

2. But since that is not possible, ~~there~~ all governments to appoint a number of public officers, whose

duty and business ■ should be to inform themselves thoroughly of those wants and abundances, and to procure, by proper management, all the exchanges that would tend to increase the general happiness, such officers, if they could well discharge their trust, would deserve honors and salaries equivalent to their industry and fidelity.

3. But, ■ in large communities, and for the ■■ general occasions of mankind, such officers have ■■■ been appointed, perhaps from ■ ■■■ viction that it would be *impracticable* for such an appointment effectually to ■■■ its purpose, it seems necessary to permit men, who, for the *possible profits* in prospect, will undertake it, to fetch and carry, at all distances, the produce of other men's industry, and thereby assist those useful exchanges.

4. As the persons primarily interested in these exchanges cannot conveniently meet to make known their wants and abundances, and to bargain for exchanges, those who transport the goods should be interested to study the probability of these wants, and where to find the means of supplying them; and, since there exist ■ salaries ■ public rewards for them in proportion to their skill, industry, and utility to the people in general, nor to make them any compensation for their losses arising from inexpertness or from accident, it ■■■ reasonable that for their encouragement to follow the business, they should be left to make such profits by ■ as they can, which, where ■ is open to all, will

probably seldom be extravagant. And perhaps by ■■■ means the business ■■■ be better done for the general advantage, and those who do it more properly rewarded according to their merits, than would be the case were special officers to be appointed for that service.

[The Essay that ■■■ was originally published in 1774, and in the joint work of George Whately and Dr. ■■■ The original work was indeed written by the former, and communicated ■■ the latter, who rarely ever perused a literary production without correcting, improving, or augmenting its force and value, from his own sources. The corrections ■■■ additions which were made by Dr. Franklin, produced an ■■■ controversy between them, who had the best claim to ■■■ himself the author of it, which was closed by a determination to publish it, without any name, but under this designation—"By a well-wisher to the king and country." Dr. Franklin, who was ■■■ so solicitous about ■■■ reputation ■■ about the practical utility of his writings, continued ■■ consider his friend, Mr. Whately, ■■ the author, and persisted even to the last in that sentiment; for in a letter of the 21st of August, 1784, from Paris, addressed to him in the words, "*My ■■■ old Friend,*" he requests a copy of ■■■ excellent little work—"The Principles of Trade." The whole work ■■ given here, because with whatever ■■■ separation might ■■ accomplished, of what belongs ■■ ■■ or the other, the separate parts would be ■■■ incomplete, and ■■■ whole is particularly worthy preservation.]

PRINCIPLES OF TRADE.

Freedom and Protection are the best support; Industry the only means to render Manufactures cheap.

Of Coins, Exchange, and Bounties, particularly the Bounty on Coin.

Commerce is generally understood to be the power which the power of this country has been raised, and which must

Tous les sujets doivent leurs soins, et leurs lumières, à l'état.

DEDICATION.

To all those who have the welfare and prosperity of these kingdoms at heart, the following Essay, containing, we hope, useful and incontrovertible principles on the subjects treated of, is very heartily and affectionately inscribed.

March, 1774.

CONTENTS.

	Section
Trade and Commerce; what	I
End; Gain	II
Its best Support; Freedom and Protection	4
Fundamental Maxims for an industrious People	seq.
Trade benefited by Industry and Money	
Of Silver Coin, and its Scarcity	
Of other Coins, and Paper Money	31 & seq.

Of Exchanges - - - - -	34
■ a Par of Exchange - - - -	38
■ Bounties - - - - -	■
Of Bounty ■ Wheat, and its being continued ■ ■ seq.	

PREFACE.

It is ■ vain imagination that we exist only for ourselves, or our particular country. The all-wise Creator has ordained that *a mutual dependence* shall run through all his works; and though our limited capacities will not admit ■ fully to comprehend the nature and end of this connected chain of things, yet we may, and indeed ought, to inquire into and consider every thing which relates to ■ mutual dependence upon one another, and the springs and principles of ■ actions.

By this investigation ■ shall find that our wants, whether real or ideal, our passions, and ■ habits, ■ the springs of all our actions, and indeed the ■ of the general intercourse and commerce between one ■ and another, one country and another.

Most writers upon trade have made it their business to support and explain ■ particular branches of traffic, ■ some favorite hypothesis. We shall, in the ensuing essay, ■ best endeavors to ■ from the friends of trade, and ■ kind in general, ■ prevailing prejudices, and to treat in a concise manner, upon a few self-evident principles ■ general maxims, under ■ persuasion,

that if such maxims and principles ■ just, all deductions and discussions whatever may be tried by their standard.

Some very respectable friends have indulged ■ with their ideas and opinions. It is with the greatest pleasure we, in this second edition, most gratefully acknowledge the favor; and must add, that should the public hold this performance in any estimation, ■ small share belongs to those friends.

§ 1. Trade or commerce is the intercourse, ■ well between nation and nation, ■ between one man and another; by which we acquire whatsoever may be thought, ■ understood to be, of use or delight, whether real or ideal.

2. The spring ■ movement of such intercourse is, and ever must be, gain, ■ the hopes of gain; ■ neither the public, ■ the individual, would intentionally pursue any unprofitable intercourse ■ commerce.

3. Gain being the principle of trade, the whole mystery of trade must therefore consist in prosecuting methods whereby gain or advantage may be obtained.

In transactions of trade, it is not to be supposed that, like gaming, what ■ party gains the other must necessarily lose. The gain to each may be equal. If A. has more corn than he can consume, but wants cattle, and B has more cattle, but wants

corn, an exchange is gain to each; hereby the common stock of comforts in life is increased.

4. Freedom and protection ■■■ most indisputable principles whereon the success of trade must depend, as clearly ■ an open good road tends towards ■ safe and speedy intercourse; nor is there ■ greater enemy to trade than constraint.

5. Governments which have adopted those plain simple principles have been greatly benefited.

6. Were princes, in general, to abolish all sorts of prohibitory laws, trade in general would flourish most in those countries where the happy situation, the mildness of the climate, the activity and industry of the inhabitants, would furnish ■■■■ for ■ speedy and useful intercourse, reciprocally to supply any real or ideal want.

When princes make ■■■ by prohibiting commerce, each may hurt himself ■ much ■ his enemy. Traders, who by their business are promoting the common good of mankind, as well as farmers and fishermen, who labor for the subsistence of all, should ■■■■ be interrupted or molested in their business, but enjoy the protection of all in the time of ■■ as well ■ in time of peace.

This policy, those we are pleased to call barbarians, have, in a great measure, adopted; for the trading subjects of any power, with whom the emperor of Morocco may be at war, are not liable

to capture, when within sight of his land, going or coming, and have otherwise free liberty to trade and reside in his dominions.

As a maritime power, we presume it is not thought right that Great Britain should grant such freedom, except partially; as in the case of war with France, when tobacco is allowed to be sent thither under the sanction of passports.

7. We have no reason to expect this, than that the whole world should be governed by the same laws. In our opinion, however, laws which the art of man can devise, will not only hinder, or entirely stop the current of, a profitable trade; any more than the severest laws could prevent the satisfying of hunger, when any chance or opportunity offered to gratify it.

8. Nevertheless, so far as it is possible, according to the different modes and constitutions of each state, freedom and protection should be so had in view by its respective government.

9. For whatever law is enacted, abridging a freedom or liberty, which the true interest of the state demands, which does not grant protection where it may be wanted, must clearly be detrimental.

10. We are well aware, that in many cases, individuals may endeavor at an intercourse or trade, whereby the public, in some particular point, may seem injured; and yet it may be out of the power of the state to hinder it, without breaking in upon

the freedom of trade; ■ that the Dutchman who, when Antwerp was besieged, furnished arms, ammunition, and provision to the Spaniards, and gloried in it, though ■ chief magistrate of Amsterdam, ■■ not so very wrong in his principles in general, ■ at first sight might appear: for this Dutchman ran the risk of losing his ammunition, &c. which, if taken, would have been indeed his loss, but ■ gain to the captors his countrymen; and if sold, and delivered to the enemy, brought profit to him, and in consequence to the state of which he ■■ ■ member. This man, to evince how much he held freedom in trade to be essential, used ■ very strong figure; when owning his having furnished the enemy of the state with ammunition, &c. he added; that he would, to prosecute his trade, sail through hell, at the risk of singeing his sails.

It is generally a vain imagination, that if ■■ do not furnish an enemy with what he wants, he cannot be supplied elsewhere. Since we ■■ to suffer the mischief he may do with it, why should we not receive the profit that arises ■■ supplying it? Thus might the Dutchman have reasoned when he supplied the enemy with ammunition, &c.

11. We have, as a first principle, laid down what we apprehend every one must allow, that gain, or the hopes of gain, is the ■■■■ of all intercourse or trade. Herein, as above hinted, must be comprehended, all matters of use, in the ■■■■

instance: and then, matters of ambition, delight, opinion; in word, luxury.

12. Now things of real value only be meat, drink, clothing, fuel, and habitation. The several particulars relative to these, every one's mind can suggest: to enumerate would almost be endless.

13. As to meat, in a country where corn, fruits, and cattle can be raised, and bred; the inhabitants must be wanting in industry, to cultivate the lands, or they cannot, in the common course of things, want help from their neighbors, for sustenance.

The same as to drink; if for it they will content themselves with the beverage made of their own corn and fruits.

And of clothing; if they can be satisfied to be clad with the manufactures made from the produce of their own country.

As to fuel and habitation, there are very few countries which do not afford these articles.

14. The real want of all or any of these necessities, must, and ever will be, an incentive to labor; either by every individual himself, in the community, or by those, to whom an equivalent is given for their labor.

15. When ambition, delight, opinion, otherwise luxury, come to be considered, the field is extremely enlarged; and it will require a copious deliberation and ascertainment.

16. For luxury may be carried to such a height,

as to be thought by some ■ be prejudicial ■ the state; though we, in ■ general sense, ■ well apprehend it can: inasmuch ■ what ■ call riches, must be the ■ of luxury, taken in all its branches.

17. Now riches, as ■ conceive them, consist in whatever either a state or an individual have, ■ than is necessary, to procure the above ■ tials, which ■ only of real use, viz. meat and drink, and clothes, fire and shelter.

This ■ or abundance, from whatsoever cause it may proceed, after the bartering for, and procuring those essentials, would absolutely, and to ■ intents, be useless, and of no manner of avail, were it not that delight, and opinion, came in aid, to ■ what we will call ideal wants; which wants, ■ passions, put into our make by the almighty hand that formed us, ■ us to be almost as solicitous to provide for, and to supply, ■ if such wants were real.

18. We therefore must repeat, that from motives to acquire what may be thought of real ■ ideal use, spring the intercourse or trade between nations, ■ well as between individuals: and it seems to be self-evident that the produce of the land, and of industry in general, must supply all our wants: ■ consequently our trade.

19. Now, though it is hardly to be expected, as above ■, that princes should allow of a general free trade or intercourse, because they seldom

know their own true interest; yet it does not follow that fundamental maxims should not be attended to in governing an industrious people. Some of these principles may beg leave to expatiate on.

20. Land, to bring forth its increase, must be cultivated by man and beast. It is therefore the duty and interest of the state to protect both man and beast; and in their respective classes to nourish and cherish them.

21. Industry in all shapes, in all instances, and by all means, should be encouraged and protected: indolence by every possible method rooted out.

All that live must be subsisted. Subsistence costs something. He that is industrious produces by his industry, something that is an equivalent, and pays for his subsistence. He is therefore no charge or burden to society. The indolent are an expense, uncompensated.

There can be no doubt but all kinds of employment that may be followed without prejudice from interruptions; work that can be taken up, may be laid down, often in a day, without damage; such as spinning, knitting, weaving, &c. are highly advantageous to a country: because, in them, may be collected all the produce of those fragments of time that are lost in family business, between the constant and necessary parts of it, that usually occupy females; as the time between rising and preparing breakfast; between breakfast and preparing for dinner, &c. The amount of all these

fragments is, in the course of a year, very considerable to a single family; to a state proportionably. Highly profitable therefore it is, in this case also, to follow that divine direction, gather up the fragments, that nothing be lost. Lost time is lost subsistence; it is therefore lost treasure.

Hereby, in several families, many yards of linen have been produced from the employment of these fragments only, in one year, though such families were just the same in number as when not employed.

It was an excellent saying of a certain Chinese emperor, "I will, if possible, have no idleness in my dominions; for if there be one idle, another man must suffer cold and hunger." We take this emperor's meaning to be, that the labor due to the public, by each individual, not being performed by the indolent, must naturally fall to the share of others, who must thereby suffer.

22. Whatever can contribute towards procuring from the land, and by industry, a produce wherewith other nations may be supplied, ought highly to be encouraged.

23. Materials wanting in a country to employ its inhabitants, ought by all means to be procured. Gold and silver, those tokens of riches, used in such, and otherwise of little use, are not so estimable. The bartering of them for such materials is manifestly advantageous.

24. These, as we apprehend, are incontrovertible

principles, which a wise government will found its resolutions.

25. That the produce of other countries for ideal wants ought to be discouraged, particularly when the produce of the land, or of industry, are not given in exchange for them, has been strongly urged by many. On the grand principle of freedom in trade, cannot well admit it: for it is plain the luxurious will use, and the trader, to prosecute his gain, will procure, such foreign produce: nor do prohibitory laws, heavy duties, hinder. Nevertheless, to allow for a moment the doctrine, we will remark, that only the establishing it a mode or fashion amongst the opulent and great, possibly effectuate a disuse a discouragement.

In fact, the produce of other countries can hardly be obtained, unless by fraud a rapine, without giving the produce of a land a industry in exchange for them. If we have mines of gold and silver, gold and silver may then be called the produce of our land. If we have not, we only fairly obtain those metals by giving for them the produce of a land or industry. When a have them, they are then only that produce or industry in another shape; which a may give, if the trade requires it, and a other produce will not suit, in exchange for the produce of some other country that furnishes what we have a occasion for, a desire. When a have, to an incon-

venient degree, parted with our gold and silver, our industry is stimulated afresh to procure more; that by its means ■■■ may contrive to procure the ■■■ advantage.

In this place it will be proper to observe upon an erroneous doctrine, which has been often strenuously insisted on, that the cheapness of provisions must render manufactures cheap; and that plenty of money conduces to the benefit of trade. We shall endeavor to prove that industry alone does both.

26. Providence has wisely ordained that there should be different occupations and pursuits amongst men, and that the rich and poor should be actuated by different wants, whether real or ideal. It is next to impossible that the rich should be without desires, or wishes for greater acquisitions; or the poor without being necessitated to acquire what must supply their real wants. If the rich curtail their desires, ■■■ wishes, their riches serve, in proportion to their not using them, no more than ore in ■■■ unworked mine. If the poor ■■■ by ■■■ day's labor can supply his real wants for ~~two~~ days, and sits idle the half of his time, he may be considered in such idle time as ■ monk or a cripple with regard to the community. If ■ thirst for acquisition move the rich man, he industriously employs all his riches. If the scarcity of provisions compel the poor ■■■ to work his whole time, he assuredly, by his industry, ■■■ make ■■■

manufactures than only working half of it. Hence we conclude, that gain is the first mover; and industry, and the desire of supplying our wants, the intermediate ~~medium~~ of ~~the~~ intercourse ~~and~~ trade. We however ~~must~~ observe, that ~~a~~ government truly wise should always, ~~as~~ far ~~as~~ the general good allows, be ~~as~~ solicitous to procure plenty of provisions, whereby both ~~man~~ and beast may be kept in good health and strength, as to encourage industry. For industry cannot be sufficiently sustained without the strength arising from plenty of provisions.

The common people do not work for pleasure generally, but from necessity. Cheapness of provisions makes them more idle; less work is then done; it is then more in demand proportionally; and of course the price rises. Dearthness of provisions obliges the manufacturer to work more days and ~~more~~ hours: thus more work is done than equals the usual demand; of course it becomes cheaper, and the manufactures in consequence.'

These maxims and many others in this tract, ~~may~~ ~~be~~ considered ~~as~~ applicable to European society, particularly ~~to~~ England, where industry is not applied to the profit of the individual who labors; but where one ~~or~~ ~~a~~ few individuals, with large capitals, make ~~a~~ monopoly of the industry of thousands. These thousands barely subsisted by labor, and from the ~~smallness~~ ~~of~~ their reward ~~the~~ wages, never able to ~~accumulate~~ ~~a~~ surplus to accumulate for their children ~~or~~ for old age, ~~are~~ ~~thus~~ dependent on their employers; and where labor is the only occupation, and bare existence the only hope, there idleness is an enjoyment.

27. As to plenty of money being a [] to trade and manufactures; we apprehend every [] conversant therein must know that the coin, by which we generally understand money, of every respective state, is by no means the mover of the intercourse or tradings of the world in general. Gold and silver in bullion, or in [] uncoined mass, are rather [] so; being, in point of value, [] merchandise less liable to variation than any other. [] is true that coin may be liable, in the fluctuation of trade, to be made a merchandise of; but as by constant use, the pieces of coin become lighter than their original weight, they thereby [] less [] for merchandise. We therefore may say, that coins, in general, [] no otherwise be useful, than [] the [] between man and man, [] serving to barter against, [] exchange for, all kinds of commodities. Certain it is that coins cannot be ranked amongst those things which [] *only of real use*. Let [] therefore suppose pieces of coin to be counters; and to simplify the matter still more, suppose every manufacturer to have of these counters any [] whatever, will [] follow, that any sort of manufacture shall be industriously attended to, [] work done than when no [] counters than just enough to barter for the real wants of meat, drink, and clothes, &c. [] be procured by labor? Surely no. It must be the desire of supplying our wants, which excites industry [] above

hinted, that alone sets that trade going. and only procure plenty of manufactures.

28. It is, nevertheless, the duty of government stamp coins counters of different sorts and denominations, so that time, of all things the most precious, be not wasted in settling the respective exchangings amongst mankind. Nevertheless the plenty or scarcity of those coins cannot entirely depend any government, but on the general circulation and fluctuation of trade, which may make them merchandise, without the least detriment; it must be allowed, that the precious metals gold and silver, of which such coins principally composed, other than merchandise acquired from countries where there are mines, by those countries which have none, in exchange for the produce of their land, or of their manufactures.

That the welfare of any state depends its keeping *all* its gold and silver, either in bullion in coin, must be founded a very narrow principle indeed. All republics we know of, wisely think otherwise. Spain, the grand of silver, has of late years, very justly, allowed the free exportation of it, paying a duty, as in Great Britain lead and tin do: nor prior to this permission could their penal laws in Spain hinder its being exported; for a commodity which that kingdom was under necessity of giving as an equivalent for what furnished to them by other countries.

Could Spain and Portugal have succeeded in executing their foolish laws for "*hedging in the cuckoo*," as Locke calls it, and have kept at all their gold and silver, those metals would, by this time, have been of little value than so much lead or iron. Their plenty would have lessened their value. We see the folly of these edicts; but are not our own prohibitory and restrictive laws, that are professedly made with intention to bring a balance in our favor from trade with foreign nations to be paid in money, and laws to prevent the necessity of exporting that money, which, if they could be thoroughly executed, would make money as plenty, and of little value; I say, not such laws akin to those Spanish edicts; follies of the same family?

30. In Great Britain, the silver coin bearing a disproportion to gold than in neighboring states, of about five in the hundred, must, by that disproportion, become merchandise, as well in exportation, as for the manufactures at home, in which silver is employed, than if it remained in the mass uncoined. This might be remedied without injuring the public, or touching the present standard, which never should be done, only by enacting that sixty-five shillings should be cut out of one pound weight of standard silver, instead of sixty-two, which is the number ordained by law. We must however remark, that, by any extraordinary demand for silver, a pound

weight, bought even for sixty-five shillings, can be to the advantage, or melted down for manufactures, no prohibitory laws will hinder its exportation or melting, and still becoming a merchandise.

31. Coiners have pointed out, though the risk of the gallows, which we think would be advisable in some degree for government to adopt. They coin and circulate shillings of such weight as to gain ten to fourteen in the hundred, and upwards: out of a pound of standard silver they cut sixty-eight or seventy-one shillings. That these light shillings or counters are useful, though the public be so greatly imposed on, is evident. It must be presumed, that every thing put in practice by government to detect and stop this manifest roguery. so, it the one hand be supposed the public purse should bear the burden of this fraud? yet, the other hand, having no supply of legal shillings or counters, the utility of the illegal forces them, as were, on the public. The power of the legislature to the proportion of five in the hundred, above mentioned, is indubitable; but every private person possessed of these counters, the public purse, should be obliged to bear the loss of re-coinage; seems a difficult point to determine; as may be alleged, that every private person has in power to accept, or refuse any coin, under the weight, by law

enacted, for each denomination. If the former, he does it to his own wrong, and must take the consequences. The individual, on the other hand, has to allege the almost total want of lawful counters; together with the impossibility of neglect of hindering those of inferior weight from being suffered to be current. It may be submitted, that the use of coin is for public utility, any loss which arises in the coin either by wearing, or by filing and sweating, ought to be made good by calling in the coin after a certain number of years from the time of coinage, and receiving the money called in at the charge of the public. We are well assured what latitude such a resolution might give to the coiners of shillings, the filers, and the sweaters of gold; but taking proper precautions beforehand, this evil might, we think, in a great degree be prevented.

32. In the beginning of his present majesty's reign, quarter guineas were wisely ordered to be coined; whereby the want of silver coin was in some degree supplied: which would have been more so, were thirds and two-thirds of guineas to be coined. We cannot conceive why this is not done; except that these denominations are not specified in his majesty's indenture with the master of the mint; which in our humble opinion ought to be rectified.

33. We think it not improper here to observe, not, whether silver or gold be called

the standard money; and the most rational that the most common and precious metal should be the unit or standard.

That as to copper, it is fit for money, as a counter, as gold or silver, provided it be coined of proper weight and fineness: and just as much will be useful as will silver to make up small parts in exchange between man and man, and more ought to be coined.

As to paper circulating money, it is highly profitable, as its quick passing from one to another is a gain of time, and thereby may be understood to add hands to the community: inasmuch as those, who would be employed in telling and weighing, will follow other business. The issuers of paper are understood to have an equivalent to answer what it is issued for, as valued at; and can any metal or coin do more than find its value.

§ It is impossible for government to circumscribe, or fix the extent of paper credit, which must, of course, fluctuate. Government may as well pretend to lay down rules for the operations, or the confidence, of every individual, in the course of his trade. Any seeming temporary evil arising, will naturally work its own cure.

§4. Some principles relative to exchange have in our opinion been treated of in a very confused manner; and some maxims have been held upon that subject, which tend only to mislead, we

shall here briefly lay down what, according to our opinion, are self-evident principles.

35. Exchange, by bills, between one country or city and another, we conceive to be this. One person wants to get a sum from any country or city; consequently has his bill or draft to sell: another wants to send a sum thither; and therefore agrees to buy such bill or draft. He has it at an agreed-for price, which is the course of the exchange. It is with the price for bills as with merchandise; when there is a scarcity of bills in the market, they are dear; when plenty, they are cheap.

36. We judge it needless to enter into the several courses and denominations of exchanges which the world hath established: they are taught at school. But we think we must offer a few words, to destroy an erroneous principle that has misled some, and confused others; which is, that by authority, a certain par, or fixed price of exchange, should be settled between each respective country; thereby rendering the currency of exchange as fixed as the standard of coin.

37. We have above hinted, that plenty and scarcity must govern the course of exchange: which principle, duly considered, would settle the subject; but we will add, that no human foresight can absolutely judge of the fluctuations in trade; which vary, sometimes directly, sometimes indirectly, between countries.

consequently ~~no~~ state or potentate can, by authority, any ~~more~~ pretend to settle the currency of the prices of the several sorts of merchandise sent to and from their respective dominions; than they can a par of exchange. In point of merchandise, indeed, where there is a monopoly of particular commodities, an exception must be allowed, as to such articles; but this is not at all applicable to trade in general; for the encouragement of which we cannot too often repeat, that *freedom and security are most essentially necessary.*

36. Another specious doctrine, much labored by theorists, in consequence of that relating to the par, is, that the exchange between any particular country being above or below par, always shows whether the reciprocal trade be advantageous or disadvantageous. ~~It~~ is, and must be allowed, that in trade nothing is given without adequate returns or compensations; but these are so various and ~~so~~ fluctuating between countries, as often, indirectly ~~or~~ directly, that there is no possibility of fixing a point from whence to argue; ~~so~~ that should there happen a greater variation than of two or three ~~per cent~~ in the hundred, at any certain period in the exchange, above or below what is called the par or equality ~~the~~ money of one country to that of another, influenced by the fluctuations and circulations in trade, it does not follow, that a trade is advantageous or disadvantageous, excepting momentarily, if one may so say,

which can be of ~~any~~ consequence to the public in general, ~~the~~ the trade from advantageous may become disadvantageous, and *vice versa*; and, consequently, the deducing of reasons from what in its nature must be fluctuating, ~~can~~ only help to embarrass, if not mislead.

39. To return to trade in general. Our principles, ~~we~~ apprehend, may hold good for ~~all~~ nations, and ought to be attended to by the legislative power of every nation. We will not discuss every particular point: nor is it to ~~our~~ purpose to examine the pretended principles ~~of~~ utility whereon monopolies are generally established. That the wisdom of government should weigh and nicely consider any proposed regulation on those principles, we humbly judge to be self-evident; whereby may be ~~seen~~ whether it coincides with the general good. Solomon adviseth *not to counsel with a merchant for gain*. This, ~~we~~ presume, relates to the merchant's own particular profit; which, ~~we~~ repeat, must ~~be~~ be the spring of his actions. Government ought, notwithstanding, to endeavor to procure particular informations from every one; not only from those actually employed, ~~but~~ those who have been concerned in particular branches of trade, but ~~also~~ from persons who may have considered of ~~it~~ theoretically and speculatively.

Perhaps, in general, ~~it~~ would be better if government meddled no ~~more~~ with trade than to protect it, and let ~~it~~ take ~~its~~ course. Most of the

statutes, ■ acts, edicts, arrets, and placarts of parliaments, princes, and states, for regulating, directing, or restraining of trade, have, we think, been either political blunders, or jobs obtained by ■■ men for private advantage, under pretence of public good. When Colbert assembled ■■ wise ■■ merchants of France, and desired their advice and opinion, how he could best ■■ and promote commerce, their answer, after consultation, was, in three words only, *Laissez nous faire*: Let ■■ alone. It is said, by a very solid writer of the ■■ nation, that he is well advanced in the science of politics who knows the full force of that maxim—*Pas trop gouverner*: Not to govern too much. Which, perhaps, would be of more use when applied to trade, than in any other public concern. It were therefore to be wished, that ■■■■■ ■■ ■■ free between all the nations of the world, ■■ it is between the several counties of England: so would all, by mutual communication, obtain ■■■■ enjoyments. Those counties do not ruin ■■ another by trade; neither would the nations. No nation was ■■■■ ruined by trade; ■■■■ seemingly the most disadvantageous.

Wherever desirable superfluities are imported, industry ■■ excited; and therefore plenty is produced. Were only necessities permitted to be purchased, men would work no more than was necessary for that purpose.

40. Though we waive a discussion on particular

branches of trade, as the field is too large for our present purpose; and that particular laws and regulations may require variation, as the different intercourses, and [REDACTED] interests of states, by different fluctuations, may alter; yet, as what relates to bounties [REDACTED] premiums, which the legislature of Great Britain has thought [REDACTED] to grant, hath been by [REDACTED] deemed, if not ill-judged, unnecessary; [REDACTED] hope [REDACTED] time not ill bestowed, to consider [REDACTED] the [REDACTED] and rectitude of the principle [REDACTED] which we apprehend these bounties [REDACTED] premiums have been granted.

41. It must, we think, on all hands be allowed, that the principle whereon they [REDACTED] founded must be [REDACTED] encouragement tending to [REDACTED] general benefit, though granted on commodities, manufactures, [REDACTED] fisheries, carried [REDACTED] in particular places and countries, which [REDACTED] presumed [REDACTED] found to require aid from the public purse for farther improvement.

Of the bounties, [REDACTED] having had the proposed effect, are discontinued: others [REDACTED] continued, for the very [REDACTED] they [REDACTED] first given.

In [REDACTED] opinion, [REDACTED] doubt [REDACTED] arise as [REDACTED] the utility of these grants from the public purse [REDACTED] individuals. The grand principle of trade, which is gain, is the foundation of bounties: for, as every individual makes [REDACTED] part of [REDACTED] whole public; consequently, whatever [REDACTED] the individual [REDACTED] benefit, the public: hereby, the wisdom of [REDACTED] legislature is most evident; [REDACTED] should, it in any

wise ■ arranged, though ill success attended any particular commodity, manufacture, or fishery; for the encouragement of which bounties have been established.

We are well ■ that it is not impossible the purpose of bounty may have been perverted, with a view to improper gain; but it is the duty of the legislature to ■ the proper ■ for preventing ■ iniquity. This abuse, however, ■ be adduced ■ ■ argument against the benefit arising from allowing bounties.

42. These principles in regard to bounties or premiums, are applicable to most articles of commerce, except wheat and other grain, which we shall consider and enlarge on, ■ being of a complicated nature, and concerning which mankind have, at particular times, been divided in opinion.

43. It seems to us, that this bounty on grain was intended, not only to encourage the cultivating of land for the raising of it in abundance in this kingdom, for the use of its inhabitants, but also ■ furnish our neighbors, whenever the kind hand of Providence should be pleased to grant a superfluity.

44. It ■ be presumed that the encouragement by the bounty insures ■ the community an uninterrupted constant plenty; yet, when the grower of grain knows he may, by such bounty, have a chance of ■ foreign market for any excess he may have, more ■ the usual home consump-

tion, he the [] willingly labors and improves his land, upon the presumption of having a vent for his superfluity, by a demand in foreign countries; so that he will not probably be distressed by abundance; which, strange as it may [] to some, might be the [] by his want of sale, and his great charges of gathering in his crop.

45. As there are no public granaries in this kingdom, the legislature could devise a better means than to fix stated prices under which the bounty a encouragement from the public purse should be allowed. Whenever the current prices exceeded those stipulated, then such bounty should cease.

46. Few consider, [] [] affected, but by what is present. They see grain, by [] of scanty crops, dear; therefore [] the doors for gain, to the cultivators of it, must always be kept shut. The common outcry is, that the exporting our wheat furnishes bread to [] neighbors cheaper than it [] be afforded to [] poor at home; which affects [] manufacturers, [] they [] thereby work cheaper. To this last allegation we must refer to what [] have said, section 26; though the former, that wheat is, by the bounty, afforded to our neighbors cheaper than to us at home, must in general be without foundation, from the several items of charge attending the exportation of grain, such as cartage, factorage, commission, portorage, &c. The freight paid to our [] shipping, [] which

alone the bounty is restrained, must, when duly considered, very sufficiently counterbalance the bounty; so that more than what is given out of the public purse is put into the pockets of individuals for the carriage, &c.: therefore ■ think ■ may well presume that, in general, grain exported comes dearer to the foreigner than to the consumer in Great Britain.

47. Nothing ■ be more evident, ■ apprehend, than that the superfluity of our grain being exported, is ■ clear profit to the kingdom, as much as any other produce of our labor, in manufactures, in tin, or any commodities whatsoever.

48. It behoves us, however, indubitably, to have an eye towards having a sufficiency of grain for food in this country, ■ have laid down, section 26: and were the legislature to enact, that the justices of the peace, ■ the Christmas quarter session, should have power to summon all growers of grain, or dealers therein, and upon oath to examine them ■ to the quantity then remaining; returns of which quantities should be made to the lords of ■ treasury, to be laid before parliament; the legislature would, upon such returns, be able to judge whether it would be necessary ■ enable his majesty, with the advice of his council, to put a stop to any farther exportation ■ such times as might be thought proper.

■ Or, it is submitted, whether the legislature would not ■ consistent with the principle

of granting bounties, by repealing the act allowing the present bounty ■ the several sorts of grain at the now fixed prices, and reduce these prices as follow :—

On wheat from forty-eight to thirty-six or thirty-two shillings.

On barley from twenty-four to eighteen ■ sixteen a quarter; and so in proportion for any other grain. In short, diminish the present standard prices, under which the bounty is granted, ■ quarter ■ one third.

50. In our humble opinion, this last method would be by much the most simple and eligible, as consistent with ■ grand principle of freedom in trade, which would be cramped if dependent annually ■ parliamentary deliberation.

51. The advocates for not lowering the present stipulated prices that command the bounties from the public purse may allege, that ■ ancestors deemed them necessary, ■ the principle of granting any bounty at all, which ■ have above hinted, section 49. We do not controvert the wisdom of the principle for granting a bounty; for it ■ have been, and ever will be, ■ encouragement to cultivation; and consequently it would be highly improper wholly to discontinue it; nevertheless, if it has answered ■ great end proposed, which was cultivation and improvement, and that it is incontrovertible the cultivator has, by the improve-

ments made by the encouragement of the bounty, a living profit at the reduced prices of thirty-two or thirty-six shillings, sixteen or eighteen, &c. as above, which probably, when our ancestors enacted the law for granting the bounty, they understood the cultivators could not have; it seems clear, that there ought to be the proposed change and reduction of the bounty prices, as above mentioned.

■ The French, intent on trade, have a few years since rectified a very gross mistake they labored under, in regard to their commerce in grain. One county or province in France should abound, and the neighboring one, though almost starving, should not be permitted to get grain from the plentiful province, without particular license from court, which cost ■ small trouble and expense. In sea-port towns wheat should be imported; and ■ after, without leave of the magistrates, the owner should only have liberty to export one-quarter or ■ third of it. They ■ now wiser; and through all the kingdom the ■ trade is quite free: and what is more, all sorts of grain may be exported upon French bottoms only, for their encouragement; copying, ■ presume our law, whenever the market prices for three following days shall not exceed above forty-five shillings sterling for a quarter of wheat: our ■ for mentioning this is only to show that other nations

changing their destructive measures, and that it behoves us to be careful that we pay the greatest attention to our essential interests.

In inland high countries, remote from the sea, and whose rivers are small, running from the country, not to it, as is the case of Switzerland, great distress may arise from a succession of bad harvests, if public granaries are not provided, and kept well stored. Anciently, too, before navigation was in general, ships were plenty, and commercial connexions were well established, even in maritime countries might be occasionally distressed by bad crops. But such is now the facility of communication between those countries, that no unrestrained commerce can ever be of procuring a sufficiency for any of them. If, indeed, any government is so imprudent as to lay its hands on imported corn, forbid its exportation, or compel its sale at limited prices, there the people may suffer some famine from merchants avoiding their ports. But wherever commerce is known to be always free, and the merchant absolute master of his property, as in Holland, there will always be a reasonable supply.

When an exportation of corn takes place, occasioned by a higher price in some foreign country, it is common to raise a clamor, on the supposition that it will thereby produce a domestic famine. Then a prohibition, founded on the

imaginary distress of the poor. The poor, to be sure, if in distress, should be relieved; but if the farmer could have a high price for his corn, from the foreign demand, must he, by a prohibition of exportation, be compelled to take a low price, not of the poor only, but of every one that eats bread, even the richest? The duty of relieving the poor is incumbent on the rich; but, by this operation, the whole burden of it is laid on the farmer, who is to relieve the rich at the same time. Of the poor, too, those who are maintained by the parishes have no right to claim this sacrifice of the farmer; as, while they have their allowance, it makes no difference to them whether bread be cheap or dear. Those working poor who now mind business five or four days in the week, if bread should be as dear as to oblige them to work the whole six, required by the commandment, do not seem to be aggrieved, as to have no right to public redress. There will then remain, comparatively, only a few families in every district; who, from sickness or a great number of children, will be distressed by a high price of corn, as to need relief; and these should be taken care of, by particular benefactions, without restraining the farmer's profit.

Those who fear that exportation may far drain the country of corn, as to starve ourselves, fear what never did ever happen. They may as well when they view the tide ebbing to-

wards the sea, fear that all the water will leave the river. The price of corn, like water, will find its own level. The more ■■■ export, the dearer it becomes at home. The more ■■■ received abroad, the cheaper it becomes there ; and ■■■ soon ■■■ these prices ■■■ equal, the exportation stops of course. As the ■■■ vary in different countries, the calamity of a bad harvest is never universal. If then all ports were always open, and all commerce free, every maritime country would generally eat bread at the medium price, or average of all the different harvests ; which would probably be more equal than we ■■■ make it by ■■■ artificial regulations, and therefore ■■■ more steady encouragement to agriculture. The nations would all have bread at this middle price ; and that nation which at any time inhumanly refuses to relieve the distresses of another nation, deserves no compassion when in distress itself.

We shall here end these reflections, with ■■■ most ardent wishes for the prosperity of ■■■ country, and ■■■ hopes that the doctrine we have endeavored to inculcate ■■■ to the necessity of protection and freedom, in order to insure success in trade, will be ■■■ attended to by the legislature in forming their resolutions relating to the commerce of these kingdoms.

PREFACE TO THE APPENDIX.*

The clamor made of the great inconveniencies suffered by the community in regard to the coin of this kingdom, prompted me in the beginning of his majesty's reign to give the public some reflections on coin in general; on gold and silver merchandise; and I added my thoughts on paper passing money.

As I trust the principles then laid down founded in truth, and will serve now as well then, though made fourteen years ago, to change any calculation would be of little use.

Some sections in the foregoing essay of principles of trade, which might in this appendix appear like a repetition, have been omitted.

I always resolved not to enter into any particular deduction from laws relating to coin; or into any minutiae, as to accurate nicety in weights. My intention was, and still is, no other than to endeavor to show, as briefly as possible, that what relates to coin, is not of such a complex, abstruse nature as it is generally made; and that more than common justice with common sense are required in all regulations concerning it.

Perhaps weighty matters may have pre-

* This preface was written entirely by Mr. Whately; but is valuable as separated from the matter to which it is attached.

vented government doing more in regard to coin, than ordering quarter guineas to be made ; which till this reign had not been done.

But I now judge by the late act relating to gold coin, that the legislature is roused, possibly they may consider still of that, as well as of silver coin.

Should these reflections prove of any public utility, my end will be answered.

REFLECTIONS ON COIN IN GENERAL.

1. Coins are pieces of metal, on which an impression is struck ; which impression is understood by the legislature to ascertain the weight and the intrinsic value, or worth of each piece.

2. The real value of coins depends not on a piece being called a guinea, a crown, or a shilling ; but the true worth of any particular piece of gold or silver, is what such piece contains of fine pure gold or silver.

3. Silver and copper being mixed with gold, and copper with silver, are generally understood to render those metals durable when circulating in coins ; yet air and moisture evidently affect copper, whether by itself or mixed with other metal ; whereas pure gold and silver are much less affected or corroded thereby.

4. The quantity of silver and copper mixed by way of alloy, is fixed by the legislature. When melted with pure metal, added or extracted to

make a lawful proportion, both gold and silver are brought to what is called standard. This alloy of silver and copper is never reckoned of any value. The standard once fixed, should ever be invariable; since any alteration would be followed by great confusion and detriment to the state.

5. It is for public convenience, and for facilitating the bartering between mankind for their respective wants, that coins were invented and made; for were there ■ coins, gold and silver might be made, or left pure; and what we now call a guinea's worth of any thing, might be cut off from gold, and a crown's worth from silver, and might serve, though not ■ commodiously ■ coin.

6. Hence it is evident that in whatever shape, form, or quality, these metals are, they are brought to be the most common measure between man and man, as serving to barter against or exchange for all kinds of commodities; and consequently are no ■ than ■ universal accepted merchandise; for gold and silver in bullion, that is to say, in ■ uncoined mass, and gold or silver in coin, being of equal weight, purity, and fineness, must be of equal value, the one to the other; for the stamp ■ either of these metals, duly proportioned, neither adds to, nor takes from their intrinsic value.'

' There ■ ■ incidental value, which arises from the authority of the state, which is in the nature of a credit ■ assurance of value given by the state, that either issues ■ authorises the issue of the coin.

7. The prices of gold and silver as merchandise, must in all countries, like other commodities, fluctuate and vary according to the demand; and ■■■ detriment can arise therefrom, ■■■ than from the rise and fall of any other merchandise. But if, when coined, a due proportion of these metals the one to the other, be not established, the disproportion will be felt and proved; and that metal wherein the excess in the proportion is allowed, will preferably be made ■■■ of, either in exportation or in manufacture; ■■ is the case now, in this kingdom, in regard to silver coin, and which in some measure is the occasion of its scarcity.

For so long as 15 ■■■■ and about one-fifth of pure silver in Great Britain ■■■ ordained and deemed to be equal to ■■■ ounce of pure gold, whilst in neighboring states, as France and Holland, the proportion is fixed only 14 and a half ■■■■ of pure silver, to one ounce of pure gold, it is very evident that ■■■ silver, when coined, will always be the most acceptable merchandise, by ■■■ five in the hundred, and consequently ■■■ liable to be taken away ■■ melted down, than before it received the impression at the mint.

8. Sixty-two shillings only ■■■ ordained by law to be coined from 12 ounces of standard silver; now, following the proportion above mentioned, of $15\frac{1}{2}$ to $14\frac{1}{2}$, no regard being necessary ■■ to alloy, 65 shillings should be the quantity cut out of those

9. No everlasting invariable fixation for coining can be made from a medium of the market price of gold and silver, though that medium might with ease be ascertained so as to hinder either coined gold or silver from becoming ■ merchandise; for whenever the price shall rise above that medium, ■ ■ to give ■ profit, whatever is coined will be made ■ merchandise. This in the nature of things, must come from the general exchangings, circulation, and fluctuation in trade, and cannot be hindered; but assuredly the false proportions may be amended by the legislature, and settled ■ the proportion between gold and silver is in other nations; so as not to make, as now is the case, our coined silver a merchandise, so much to be preferred to the same silver uncoined.

10. What has been said seems to be self-evident; but the following calculations made on the present current price of silver and gold, may serve to prove beyond all doubt, that the proportion now fixed between gold and silver should be altered and fixed as in other countries.

By law, 62 shillings ■■■ to be coined out of ■■■ pound, or 12 ounces of standard silver. This is 62 pence an ■■■■ Melt these ■■ shillings, and in ■ bar, this pound weight at market will fetch 68 pence an ounce, or 68 shillings the pound. The difference therefore between coined and uncoined silver in Great Britain is now nine and two-thirds per cent.

Out of ■ pound or 12 ounces of standard gold, 44 guineas and ■ half ■■ ordained to be coined. This is 3*l.* 17*s.* 10½*d.* an ounce. Now the current market price of standard gold is 3*l.* 19*s.* an ounce, which makes not quite 1½ per cent. difference between the coined and uncoined gold.

The state, out of duties imposed, pays for the charge of coining, ■■ indeed it ought; for it is for public convenience, as already said, that coins are made. It is the current market price of gold and silver that must govern the carrying it to the mint. It is absurd to think any one should send gold to be coined that should cost more than 3*l.* 17*s.* 10½*d.* an ounce, or silver more than 62 pence the ounce; and as absurd would it be to pretend, that those prices *only* shall be the constant invariable prices. It is contended that there is not a proper proportion fixed in the value of one metal to another, and this requires alteration.

11. It may be urged, that should the legislature fix the proportion of silver to gold as in other countries, by ordering 65 shillings instead of ■■ to be cut out of a pound of standard silver, yet still there would be 4⅔ per cent. difference between coined and uncoined silver; whereas there is but about 1½ per cent. difference in gold.

On this we shall observe that the ■■■■ of trade, not to mention extraordinary accidents, will make one metal more in request at ■■ time than another; and the legislature in ■■ one particular

country, can bias or prescribe rules or laws to influence such demand ; which ever must depend on the great chain of things, in which all the operations of this world are linked. Freedom and security only ■■■ wanted in trade; nor does coin require more, if ■ just proportion in the metals be settled.

12. To return to gold : it is matter of surprise, that the division of the piece called a guinea, has not been made smaller than just one half ■ it now is ; that is, into quarters, thirds, and two-thirds. Hereby the want of silver coin might be greatly provided for; and those pieces, together with the light silver coin, which can *only now* remain with us, would sufficiently serve the uses in circulation.

In Portugal, where almost all their coin is gold, there are divisions of the moedas, or 27 shilling pieces, into tenths, sixths, quarters, thirds, halves, and two-thirds. Of the moeda and one-third, or 36 shilling piece, into eighths, quarters, and halves.

13. That to the lightness of the silver coin now remaining in Great Britain we owe all the silver coin we ■■■ have, any person with weights and scales may prove ; ■ upwards of 70 shillings coined in the reign of king William, or dexterously counterfeited by false coiners, will scarce weigh 12 ounces, or ■ pound troy.

14. All the art of man ■■■ never hinder a con-

stant exportation and importation of gold and silver, to make up for the different calls and balances that may happen in trade; for were silver to be coined ■ above, 65 shillings out of a pound troy weight of standard silver; if those 65 shillings would sell at ■ price that makes it worth while to melt or export them, they must and will be considered and used ■ a merchandise; and the ■ will hold ■ to gold.

Though the proportion of about 14½ of pure silver to one of pure gold, in neighboring states be ■ fixed, in regard to their coin, and it is submitted such proportion should be attended to in this kingdom, yet that proportion may be subject to alteration; for this plain reason, that should the silver mines produce a quantity of that metal so ■ to make it greatly abound ■ in proportion than it now does, and the gold mines produce ■ ■ than now they do, more silver must be requisite to purchase gold.

15. That the welfare of any state depends on its keeping *all* its gold and silver, either in bullion or in coin, is ■ very ■ principle; all the republics we know of, wisely think otherwise. It is ■ utter impossibility; nor should it ever be aimed at; for gold and silver are ■ clearly ■ merchandise ■ lead and tin; and consequently should have ■ perfect freedom and liberty,¹ coined

¹ As a general principle this is unquestionably true; but ■ must be general, ■ every nation with whom commerce is ■

and uncoined, to go and to come, pass and repass, from ■ country to another, in the general circulation and fluctuation of commerce, which will ever carry ■ general balance with it: for we should as soon give our lead, our tin, or any other product of ■ land or industry, to those who want them, without ■ equivalent in some shape or other, as we should gold or silver; which it would be absurd to imagine can ever be done by ■ nation, ■ by any nation upon earth.

16. From Spain and Portugal come the greatest part of gold and silver: and the Spanish court very wisely permits the exportation of it on paying a duty, as in Great Britain lead and tin do, when exported; whereas heretofore, and as it still continues in Portugal, penal laws were enacted against the sending it out of the country. Surely princes by enacting such laws, could not think they had it in their power to decree and establish, that their subjects, or themselves, should not give an equivalent for what was furnished to them!

17. ■ is not ■ intention to descend into, ■ to discuss minutely, particular notions ■ systems,

tensively carried on, must alike adopt it, ■ the principle immediately assumes ■ unexceptionable character; and nations liable ■ be affected by it must provide ■ counteract the effects of ■ sudden drain of the usual circulating medium, because ■ absence of ■ great quantity of the medium alters ■ price of exchange, or relative exchange of current money for necessary ■ subsistence, and depreciates other property.

such as, "*That silver, and not gold, should be the standard money or coin.*"

... "*That copper is an unfit material for money.*"

And "*That paper circulating as, and called artificial money, is detrimental.*"

Yet these doctrines seem to proceed from considering bullion, and money, or coin, in a different light from what we apprehend and have laid down, we will observe,

18. That it matters not whether silver or gold be called standard money; but it seems most rational, that the most scarce and precious metal should be the unit or standard.

19. That as to copper, it is fit for money or a counter, as gold and silver, provided it be coined of proper weight and fineness: and just as much will be useful, will be made up small parts in exchanges between man and man.

20. That as to paper money, it is far from being detrimental; on the contrary, it is highly profitable, as its quick passing between mankind, instead of telling over, or weighing metal in coin, or bullion, is a gain of what is most precious in life, which is time. And there is nothing clearer than that those who must be concerned in counting and weighing, being at liberty to employ themselves on other purposes, are an addition of hands in the community.

The idea of the too great extension of credit, by the circulation of paper for money, is evidently

erroneous ■ the doctrine of the non-exportation of gold and silver in bullion or coin : for ■■■ it not certain, that paper could command the equivalent of its agreed-for value, ■ that gold and silver in bullion or coin exported, would be returned in the course of trade in some other merchandise, neither paper would be used or the metals exported. It is by means of the produce of the land, and the happy situation of this island, joined to the industry of its inhabitants, that those much-adored metals, gold and silver, have been procured : and so long as the sea does not overflow the land, and industry continues, so long will those metals not be wanting. And paper in the general chain of credit and commerce, is ■ useful ■ they are, since the issuers or coiners of that paper ■■ understood to have some equivalent to answer for what the paper is valued at : and no metal or coin can do more than find its value.

Moreover, as incontestable advantages of paper, we must add, that the charge of coining or making it, is by no means proportionate to that of coining of metals : nor is it subject to waste by long use, or impaired by adulteration, sweating, ■ filing. ■ coins may.

A THOUGHT CONCERNING THE SUGAR ISLANDS.

SHOULD it be agreed, and become a part of the law of nations, that the cultivators of the earth

are not to be molested or interrupted in their peaceable and useful employment, the inhabitants of the sugar islands would come under the protection of such a regulation, which would be a great advantage to the nations who at present hold these islands, since the cost of sugar to the [redacted] in those nations consists not only in the price he pays for it by the pound, but in the accumulated charge of all the taxes he pays in every [redacted] to fit out fleets and maintain troops for the defence of the islands that raise the sugar, and the ships that bring it home. But the expense of treasure is not all. A celebrated philosophical writer remarks, that when he considered the [redacted] made in Africa for prisoners to raise sugar in America, the numbers slain in those wars, the numbers that, being crowded in ships, perish in the transportation, and the numbers that die under the severities of slavery, he could scarce look on a morsel of sugar without conceiving it spotted with human blood. If he had considered also the blood of [redacted] another which the white natives shed in fighting for those islands, he would have imagined his sugar not [redacted] spotted only, but [redacted] thoroughly dyed red. On these accounts I [redacted] persuaded that the subjects of the Emperor of Germany, and the Empress of Russia, who have no sugar islands, consume sugar cheaper [redacted] Vienna and Moscow, with all the charge of transporting it, after its [redacted] rival in Europe, than the citizens of London and

Paris. And I sincerely believe, that if France and England were to decide by throwing dice, which should have the whole of their sugar islands, the loser in the throw would be the gainer. The future expense of defending them would be saved: the sugars would be bought cheaper by all Europe ■ the inhabitants might make it without interruption; and whoever imported the sugar, the ■■■ might be raised by duties at the custom-house of the nation that consumed it. And on the whole, I conceive it would be better for the nations now possessing sugar colonies, to give up their claim to them, let them govern themselves, and put them under the protection of all the powers of Europe ■ neutral countries open to the commerce of all, the profit of the present monopolies being by no ■■■■ equivalent to the expense of maintaining them.

REMARKS, written by B. FRANKLIN, with a pencil, ■ the margin of ■ REPORT of JUDGE FOSTER, containing that Judge's argument in favor of the RIGHT OF IMPRESSING SEAMEN.

Extract from the Report, page 157, 158. Edition 1762.

"THE only question ■ present is, whether ■■ riners, persons who have freely chosen a seafaring life, persons whose education and employment have ■■■ them for the service, and inured them

to it, whether such persons may not be legally pressed into the service of the crown, whenever the public safety requireth it: ■ *quid detrimenti respublica capiat.*

“For my part, I think they may. I think the ■ hath ■ right to command the service of these people whenever the public safety calleth for it. The same right that it hath to require the personal¹ service of every ■ able² to bear arms in case of a sudden invasion or formidable insurrection. The right in both cases is founded on one and the same principle, the necessity of the case in order to the preservation of the whole.

“It would be time very ■ spent to go about to prove that this nation can never be long in ■ state of safety, our coast defended, and our trade pro-

¹ This personal service, in ■ of extreme necessity, is a principal branch of the allegiance every subject of England oweth to the crown. See 11 Hen. VII. c. 1. 1 Ed. III. c. 5. 16, 17. Car. I. c. 28.

Remarks.

■ The conclusion here from the *whole* to ■ *part*, does not ■ to be good logic. When the personal service of every ■ is called for, there the burthen is equal. Not so, when the service of *part* is called for, and others excused. If ■ alphabet should say, let us ■ fight for the defence of the whole; that ■ equal, and may therefore be just. But if they should say, let A, B, C, and D, go and fight for us, while ■ stay at home and sleep in whole skins; that ■ not equal, and therefore cannot be just.

tected, without ■ naval force equal to all the emergencies that may happen. And how can we be ■ of such ■ force? The keeping up the same naval force in time of peace, which will be absolutely necessary for our security in time of war, would be an absurd, a fruitless, and a ruinous expense.

“ The only course then left, is for the crown to employ¹ upon emergent occasions, the mariners bred up in the merchant's service.

“ And as for the mariner himself, he when taken into the service of the crown only changeth masters for ■ time: *his service and employment*² continue the very same, with this advantage, that the dangers of the sea and enemy are not so great in the service of the crown as in that of the merchant.

¹ *Employ*—if you please. The word signifies engaging a man to work for me by offering him such wages as are sufficient to induce him to prefer my service. This is very different from *compelling* him to work for me *on such terms as I think proper*.

² “ *His service and employment continue the very same,*” &c. These are false facts. *His service and employment* ■ ■ the same. Under the merchant he goes in ■ unarmed vessel not obliged to fight, but only to transport merchandise. In the king's service he is obliged ■ fight, and to hazard all the dangers of battle. Sickness on board the king's ships is also ■ common and ■ mortal. The merchant's service too he ■ quit at the end of a voyage, not the king's. Also the merchant's wages are much higher.

"I am very sensible" of the hardship the sailor ■■■■ from ■■■■ impress in some particular cases, especially if pressed homeward-bound after ■ long voyage. But the merchants who bear me know, that an impress ■■■■ outward-bound vessels would be attended with much greater inconveniencies ■■■■ the trade of the kingdom; and yet that too is sometimes necessary. But where two evils present, a wise administration, if there be ■■■■ for ■■■■ option, will choose *the least*.²

■ Page 159. War itself is ■ great evil, but it is chosen to avoid ■ greater. The practice of pressing is ■■■■ of the mischiefs ■■■■ bringeth with it. But *it is a maxim in law, and good policy too, that private mischiefs must be borne with patience for preventing a national calamity.*³ And as no greater calamity

¹ "I am very sensible," &c. Here are two things put in comparison that are not comparable, viz. injury ■ seamen, and inconvenience to trade. Inconvenience to the whole trade of a nation will not justify injustice to ■ single ■■■■ If ■■■■ trade would suffer without his service, it is able and ought to be willing ■■■■ offer him such wages ■■■■ may induce him to afford ■■■■ services voluntarily.

² "■ least." The least evil in ■■■■ ■■■■ wanted, ■■■■ give ■■■■ such ■■■■ ■■■■ induce ■■■■ ■■■■ voluntarily. Let ■■■■ evil ■■■■ divided ■■■■ ■■■■ whole nation, by an equal ■■■■ ■■■■ such wages.

³ Where is this maxim in law and good policy to be found? And how came that to be a maxim which is not consistent with common sense? If the maxim had been, that private mischiefs which prevent ■ national calamity ought to be generously ■■■■

can befall us than to be weak and defenceless at sea in a time of war, so I do not know that the wisdom of the nation hath hitherto found out any method of manning ~~the~~ navy less inconvenient¹ than pressing; and at the same time, equally sure and effectual.

"The expedient of a voluntary register, which ~~was~~ attempted in king William's time, had no effect.

"And some late schemes I have seen, appear to ~~be~~ ~~more~~ inconvenient to the mariner, and more inconsistent with the principles of liberty, than the practice of pressing: and what is still worse, they are in my opinion totally impracticable.²

"Thus much I thought proper to say upon the foot of reason and public utility, before I come to speak directly to the point of law.

"Page 159. The crown's right of impressing seamen is grounded upon common law.³

pensated by that nation, ~~the~~ might have understood it. But that such private mischiefs ~~are~~ only ~~to~~ be borne with patience, is absurd.

"*Less inconvenient.*" Less inconvenient to whom? To the rich indeed, who ought to be taxed. No mischief more inconvenient to poor ~~the~~ could possibly be contrived.

"Twenty ineffectual ~~and~~ inconvenient schemes will ~~not~~ justify ~~the~~ that is unjust.

"If impressing seamen is of right by ~~the~~ law, ~~in~~ Britain, slavery is then of right by ~~the~~ common law there; there being ~~no~~ slavery worse than that sailors are subjected to.

"Ibid. The result of evident necessity."

"Page 160. There are many precedents of writs for pressing.

■ Some are for pressing ships ;

■ Others for pressing mariners ;

■ And others for pressing ships and mariners. .

"This general view will be sufficient to let us into the nature of these precedents. And though the affair of pressing ships is not now before me, yet I could not well avoid mentioning it, because many of the precedents I have met with and must cite, go ■ well to that, ■ to the business of pressing mariners. And taken together, they serve to show the power the ■ hath constantly exercised over the whole naval force of the kingdom as well shipping ■ mariners, whenever the public service required it.

"This however must be observed, that ■ ■ served the crown in either case at his own expense. Masters and mariners received *full wages*,¹ and owners were constantly paid ■ full freight.

"Page 173. Do not these things incontestably presuppose the expediency, the necessity, and the

¹ Pressing not so, if the end might be answered by giving higher wages.

² *Mariners received full wages.* Probably the same they received ■ the merchant's service. Full wages to a seaman in time of war, ■ the wages he has in the merchant's service ■ war time. ■ such wages is not given in ■ king's ships to impressed ■

legality of an impress in general? If they do not, ■■■ must entertain an opinion of the legislature acting and speaking in this manner, which it *will not be decent* for ■■■ to mention in this place.¹

“Page 174. I readily admit that an impress is a restraint upon the natural liberty of those who ■■■ liable to it. But it must likewise be admitted, on the other hand, that every restraint upon natural liberty is not *eo nomine* illegal, ■■■ at all inconsistent with the principles of *civil* liberty. And if the restraint, be it to what degree soever, appear-eth to be necessary to the good and welfare of the whole, and to be warranted by statute law, ■■■ well as immemorial usage, it cannot be complained of otherwise than ■■■ a private mischief;² which,

¹ I will risk that indecency, and mention it. They were not honest men; they acted unjustly by the seamen, (who have no vote in elections, ■■■ being abroad cannot use them if they have them) ■■■ save their ■■■ purses and those of their constituents. Former parliaments acted the same injustice towards the laboring people, who had not forty shillings a-year in lands: after depriving them wickedly of their right to vote in elections, they limited their wages, and compelled them to work ■■■ such limited rates, on penalty of being sent to houses of correction. Sec. 8. H. VI, Chap. 7 and 8.

² “It cannot be complained of otherwise than ■■■ ■■■ PRIVATE MISCHIEF, which MUST be ■■■ to for avoiding a public inconvenience.”—I do not see the propriety of this *must*. The private mischief is ■■■ loss of liberty ■■■ of life, ■■■ only half wages, to a great number of honest ■■■ The public inconvenience is merely ■■■ higher rate of seamen's wages.

as I said at the beginning, must under all governments whatsoever be submitted to for avoiding a public inconvenience.*

He who thinks such private injustice must be done to avoid public inconvenience, may understand law, but is imperfect in his knowledge of equity. Let him apply this author's doctrine to his own case. He is for the public service. Courts should be had and judges appointed to administer the laws. The judges should be bred to the law and skilled in it, but their great salaries are a public inconvenience. To remove the inconvenience, let press-warrants issue to arrest and apprehend the best lawyers, and compel them to serve as judges for half the money they would have made at the bar. Then tell them, that though this is to them a private mischief, it must be submitted to for avoiding a public inconvenience. Would the learned judge approve such use of his doctrine?

* When the author speaks of impressing, page 158, he diminishes the horror of the practice as much as possible, by presenting to the mind one sailor only suffering a hardship, as he tenderly calls it, in particular cases only; and he places against this private mischief the inconvenience to the trade of the kingdom. But if, as I suppose is often the case, the sailor who is pressed and obliged to serve for the defence of this trade at the rate of 25s. a month, could have 3l. 15s. in the merchant's service, you take from him 50s. a month; and if you have 100,000 in your service, you rob that honest part of society and their poor families of 250,000l. per month, three millions a year, and at the same time oblige them to hazard their lives in fighting for the defence of your trade; to the defence of which they ought indeed to contribute, (and sailors the rest) in proportion to their profits by it; but this three millions is more than their share, if they did not pay with their persons; and when you force that, methinks you should excuse the other.

"Page 177. For I freely declare, that *ancient precedents* alone, unless supported by *modern prac-*

But it may be said, to give the king's seamen merchant's wages, would cost the nation too much, and call for more taxes. The question then will be to this; whether it be just in a community that the richer part should compel the poorer to fight them and their properties, for such wages as they think I allow, and punish them if they refuse? Our author tells me it is *legal*. I have not law enough to dispute his authorities, but I cannot persuade myself it is *equitable*. I will however own for the present, that pressing may be lawful when necessary; but then I contend that it may be used as to produce the good effect, the *public security*, without doing so much horrible injustice as attends the impressing. In order to be better understood, I would premise two things. 1st. That voluntary might be had for the service, if they sufficiently paid. The proof of this is, that to serve in the same ships, and incur the dangers, you have no occasion to impress captains, lieutenants, second lieutenants, midshipmen, pursers, any other officers. Why, but that the profit of their places, the emoluments expected, are sufficient inducements? The business then is by impressing to money sufficient to make the sailors volunteers, as well as their officers; and this without any fresh burthen upon trade. The 2nd of my premises is, that 25s. a month, with his share of the salt beef, pork, and peas-pudding, being found sufficient for the subsistence of a hard-working seaman, it certainly be so for a sedentary scholar gentleman. I would then propose to form a treasury, of encouragement to seamen should be paid. To fill this treasury I would impress a number of civil officers who at present have great salaries, oblige them to their respective offices 25s. a month, with their share of the mess

lice, weigh very little with ■■■ in questions of this nature.'

"Page 179. I make ■■■ apology for the length of my argument, because I hope the importance

provisions, and throw the rest of their salaries into the serman's treasury. If such ■ press-warrant was given me to execute, the first person I would press should be a recorder of Bristol, ■ ■ Mr. Justice Foster, because I might have need of his edifying example, to show how such impressing ought to be borne with; for he would certainly find, that though to be reduced to 25s. per month might be ■ *private mischief*, yet that agreeably to his *maxim* of law and good policy, it ought to be borne with *patience* for preventing ■ national calamity. Then I would press the rest of the judges; and, opening the Red Book, I would press every civil officer of government from 50*l.* ■ year up to 50,000*l.*, which would throw ■ immense sum into our treasury; and these gentlemen could not well complain, since they would receive their 25s. a month and their rations, and that too without being obliged to fight. Lastly, I think ■ would impress the king, and confiscate his salary; but, from an ancient prejudice I have in favor of that title, I would allow him the gentleman merchant's pay. ■ could no' well go farther in his favor; for to say the truth, I am not quite satisfied of the necessity or utility of that office in Great Britain, as I ■ many flourishing states in the world governed well and happily without it.

' The *modern practice*, supported by ancient *precedents*, weighs ■ little with ■■■ Both the one and the other only show that the constitution is yet imperfect, since in ■ general ■ ■■ it doth not ■■■ liberty, but destroys it; and ■■ parliaments ■■ unjust, conniving ■■ oppression of the poor, where ■■ rich are ■■ ■■ gainers or ■■■ by such oppression:

of the question will be thought ■ *sufficient* excuse for me in this respect.”^{*}

ON THE CRIMINAL LAWS, AND THE PRACTICE OF
PRIVATEERING.

TO B. VAUGHAN, ESQ.

MY DEAR FRIEND, *March 14, 1785.*

AMONG the pamphlets you lately sent me, was one intitled, “Thoughts on Executive Justice.” In return for that, I send you ■ French one on the same subject, “Observations concernant l’Exécution de l’Article II. de la Déclaration sur le Vol.” They are both addressed to the judges, but written, as you will see, in ■ very different spirit. The English author is for hanging *all* thieves. The Frenchman is for proportioning punishments to offences.

If ■ really believe, as we profess to believe, that the law of Moses was the law of God, the dictate of divine wisdom, infinitely superior to human; on what principles do we ordain death ■ the punishment of ■ offence, which, according to that law, ■ only to be punished by ■ restitution of four-fold? To put ■ man to death for ■ offence which

^{*} ■ author could not well have made his argument shorter. It required a long discourse ■ throw dust in the eyes of common sense; confound ■ ■ of right and wrong, make ■ white, ■ the worse appear the better opinion: ■

does not deserve death, is it not a murder? And, as the French writer says, "*Doit-on punir un délit* ~~■~~ *société, par un crime contre la nature?*"

Superfluous property is the creature of society. Simple and mild laws were sufficient to guard the property that ~~■~~ merely necessary. The savage's bow, his hatchet, and his coat of skins, were sufficiently secured, without law, by the fear of personal resentment and retaliation. When, by virtue of the first laws, part of the society accumulated wealth and grew powerful, they enacted others more severe, and would protect their property at the expense of humanity. This was abusing their power, and commencing ■ tyranny. If a savage, before he entered into society, had been told,—“Your neighbor by this ~~■~~ may become owner of an hundred deer; but if your brother, or your son, or yourself, having ■ deer of your own, and being hungry, should kill one, an infamous death must be the consequence;” he would probably have preferred his liberty, and his common right of killing any deer, to all the advantages of society that might be proposed to him.

That it is better a hundred guilty persons should escape than that one innocent person should suffer, is a maxim that has been long and generally approved; never, that I know of, controverted. Even ■ sanguinary author of the *Thoughts* agrees to it, adding well, “that the very thought of injured innocence; and much more that of suffering inno-

cence, must awaken all our tenderest and most compassionate feelings, and at the same time raise the highest indignation against the instruments of it. But," he adds, "there is danger of either, from a strict adherence to the laws."—Really! Is it then impossible to make an unjust law? If the law itself be unjust, may it not be the very "instrument" which ought "to raise the author's and every body's highest indignation?" I see, in the last newspapers from London, that a woman is capitally convicted at the Old Bailey, for privately stealing out of a shop some gauze, value fourteen shillings and threepence: is there any proportion between the injury done by a theft, value fourteen shillings and threepence, and the punishment of a human creature, by death, on a gibbet? Might not the woman, by her labor, have made the reparation ordained by God, in paying fourfold? Is not all punishment inflicted beyond the merit of the offence, much punishment of innocence? In this light, how vast is the annual quantity of not only *injured*, but *suffering* innocence, in almost all the civilised states of Europe!

But it to have been thought, that this kind of innocence may be punished by way of *preventing* crimes. I have read, indeed, of a cruel Turk in Barbary, who, whenever he bought a new Christian slave, ordered him immediately to be hung up by the legs, and to receive a hundred blows of a cudgel on the soles of his feet; that the

of the punishment, and fear of incurring it thereafter, might prevent the faults that should merit it. Our author himself would hardly approve entirely of this Turk's conduct in the government of slaves; and yet he appears to recommend something like it for the government of English subjects, when he applauds the reply of Judge Burnet to the convict horse-stealer, who, being asked what he had to say why judgment of death should not pass against him, and answering, that it was hard to hang a man for *only* stealing a horse, was told by the judge, "Man, thou art not to be hanged *only* for stealing a horse, but that horses may not be stolen." The man's answer, if candidly examined, will I imagine appear reasonable, as being founded on the eternal principle of justice and equity, that punishments should be proportioned to offences; and the judge's reply brutal and unreasonable, though the writer "wishes all judges to carry it with them whenever they go the circuit, and to bear it in their minds containing a wise maxim for all the penal statutes, which they are called upon to put in execution. "It once illustrates," says he, "the true grounds and reasons of capital punishments whatsoever, namely, that every man's property, as well as his life, may be held sacred and inviolate." Is there no difference in value between property and life? If I think it right, that the crime of murder should be punished with death, not only

equal punishment of the crime, but to prevent other murders, does it follow that I must approve of inflicting the punishment for a little invasion on my property by theft? If I am not myself so barbarous, so bloody-minded and revengeful, as to kill a fellow-creature for stealing from me fourteen shillings and threepence, how can I approve of a law that does it? Montesquieu, who was himself a judge, endeavors to impress other maxims.

He must have known what humane judges feel on such occasions, and what the effects of those feelings; and so far from thinking that severe and excessive punishments prevent crimes, he asserts, as quoted by our French writer, that

“ L’atrocité des loix en empêche l’exécution.

“ Lorsque la peine est une mesure, on est souvent obligé de lui préférer l’impunité.

“ La cause de tous les relâchemens vient de l’impunité des crimes, et de la modération des peines.”

It is said by those who know Europe generally, that there are more thefts committed and punished annually in England than in all the other nations put together. If this be so, there must be more or less for such depravity in your common people. May not this be the deficiency of justice and morality in your national government, manifested in your oppressive conduct to your subjects, and unjust wars on your neighbors? View the long-persisted in, unjust monopolising treatment of Ireland length acknowledged! View the plun-

dering government exercised by your merchants in the Indies; the confiscating war made upon the American colonies; and, to say nothing of those upon France and Spain, view the late war upon Holland, which ■ seen by impartial Europe ■ no other light than that of ■ war of rapine and pillage; the hopes of an immense and easy prey being its only apparent and probably its true and real motive and encouragement. Justice is ■ strictly due between neighbor nations as between neighbor citizens. A highwayman is ■ much a robber when he plunders in ■ gang as when single; and a nation that makes ■ unjust war, is only a great gang. After employing your people in robbing the Dutch, strange is it, that being put out of that employ by peace, they still continue robbing and rob one another! *Piraterie*, as the French call it, or privateering, is the universal bent of the English nation, at home and abroad, wherever settled. No less than seven hundred privateers were, it is said, commissioned in the last war! These were fitted out by merchants, to prey upon other merchants, who had never done them any injury. Is there probably any ■ of those privateering merchants of London, who were so ready to rob the merchants of Amsterdam, that would not as readily plunder another London merchant of the next street, if he could do it with the same impunity? The avidity, the *alieni appetens*, is the same; it is the fear alone of the gallows that makes the dif-

ference. How then can a nation, which, among the honestest of its people, has so many thieves by inclination, and whose government encouraged and commissioned ■ less than seven hundred gangs of robbers; how can such a nation have the face to condemn the crime in individuals, and hang up twenty of them in a morning? It naturally puts one in mind of ■ Newgate anecdote:—One of the prisoners complained, that in the night somebody had taken his buckles out of his shoes;—"What, the devil!" says another, "have we then *thieves* among us?—It must not be suffered;—let us search out the rogue, and pump him to death."

There is, however, one late instance of ■ English merchant who will not profit by such ill-gotten gain. He was, it seems, part-owner of ■ ship, which the other owners thought fit to employ ■ a letter of marque, and which took a number of French prizes. The booty being shared, he has now ■ agent here inquiring, by an advertisement in the Gazette, for those who suffered the loss, in order to make them, as far as in him lies, restitution. This conscientious man is ■ Quaker. The Scotch Presbyterians ■ formerly ■ tender; for there is still extant an ordinance of the town-council of Edinburgh, made soon after the reformation, "forbidding the purchase of prize goods, under pain of losing the freedom of the burgh for ever, with other punishment at the will of the magistrate; the practice of making prizes being con-

itary to good conscience, and the rule of treating Christian brethren as ■ would wish to be treated; and such goods *are not to be sold by any godly men within this burgh.*" The race of these godly men in Scotland is probably extinct, or their principles abandoned, since, as far ■ that nation had a hand in promoting the war against the colonies, prizes and confiscations ■ believed to have been a considerable motive.

It has been for some time ■ generally received opinion, that ■ military ■ is not to inquire whether ■ be just or unjust; he is to execute his orders. All princes who ■ disposed to become tyrants, must probably approve of this opinion, and be willing to establish it; but is it not ■ dangerous one? since, on that principle, if the tyrant commands his army to attack and destroy, not only an unoffending neighbor nation, but even his ■ subjects, the army is bound to obey. A negro slave, in our colonies, being commanded by his master to rob or murder ■ neighbor, or do any other immoral act, may refuse, and the magistrate will protect him in his refusal. The slavery then of a soldier is worse than that of a negro! A conscientious officer, if not restrained by the apprehension of its being imputed to another cause, may indeed resign, rather than be employed in an unjust war; but the private men are slaves for life; and they ■ perhaps incapable of judging for themselves. We can only lament their fate, and still

more that of a sailor, who is often dragged by force from his honest occupation, and compelled to imbrue his hands in, perhaps, innocent blood. But methinks it well behoves merchants (men more enlightened by their education, and perfectly free from any such force or obligation) to consider well of the justice of a war, before they voluntarily engage a gang of ruffians to attack their fellow-merchants of a neighboring nation, to plunder them of their property, and perhaps ruin them and their families, if they yield it; or to wound, maim, or murder them, if they endeavor to defend it. Yet these things are done by Christian merchants, whether a war be just or unjust; and it can hardly be just on both sides. They are done by English and American merchants, who, nevertheless, complain of private theft, and hang by dozens the thieves they have taught by their own example.

It is high time, for the sake of humanity, that we stop short put to this enormity. The United States of America, though better situated than any European nation to make profit by privateering, (most of the trade of Europe, with the West Indies, passing before their doors) are, as far as in them lies, endeavoring to abolish the practice, by offering, in all their treaties with other powers, an article, engaging solemnly, that, in case of future war, no privateer shall be commissioned on either side; and that unarmed merchant-ships, on both

sides, shall pursue their voyages unmolested.' This will be a happy improvement of the law of

' This offer having been accepted by the late king of Prussia, a treaty of amity and [redacted] was concluded between that monarch and the United States, containing the following humane, philanthropic article; in the formation of which Dr. Franklin, [redacted] one of the American plenipotentiaries, [redacted] principally concerned, viz.

ART. XXIII.

If [redacted] should arise between the two contracting parties, the merchants of either country, then residing in the other, shall be allowed to remain nine months to collect their debts and settle their affairs, and may depart freely, carrying off all their effects without molestation or hindrance; and all women and children, scholars of every faculty, cultivators of the earth, artisans, [redacted] facturers, and fishermen, unarmed and inhabiting unfortified towns, villages, or places, and in general all others, whose occupations [redacted] for the common subsistence and benefit of mankind, shall be allowed to continue their respective employments, and shall not be molested in their persons, [redacted] shall their houses and goods be burnt, or otherwise destroyed, nor their fields wasted, by the armed force of the enemy into whose power, by the events of war, they may happen to fall; but if any thing is necessary to be taken from them for the [redacted] of such armed force, the same shall be paid for at a reasonable price. And all merchants and trading vessels employed in exchanging the products of different places, and thereby rendering the necessaries, conveniencies, and comforts of human [redacted] more easy to be obtained, and [redacted] general, shall be allowed to pass free and unmolested; [redacted] of the contracting powers shall grant or issue any [redacted] [redacted] private armed vessels, empowering them to take or destroy such trading vessels, or interrupt such commerce.

nations. The humane and the just cannot but wish general success to the proposition. With unchangeable esteem and affection, ever yours,

B. FRANKLIN.

ON THE ELECTIVE FRANCHISES ENJOYED BY THE
SMALL BOROUGHES IN ENGLAND.

(To Sir Charles Wyvill.)

SIR, *Passy, June 16, 1785.*

I send you herewith the sketch I promised you. Perhaps there may be some use in publishing it: for, if the power of choosing now in the boroughs continues to be allowed as a right, they may think themselves more justifiable in demanding more for it, or holding back longer than they would, if they find that it begins to be considered as an abuse. I have the honor to be, &c. B. FRANKLIN.

PAPER ENCLOSED IN THE FOREGOING LETTER TO
SIR C. WYVILL.

June 16, 1785.

No man, or body of men, in any nation, can have a just right to any privilege ■ franchise not ■■■■ to the rest of the nation, without having done the nation ■■■■ service equivalent, for which the franchise ■ privilege was ■■ recompense ■ consideration.

No man, ■ body of men, ■ be justly deprived of a common right, but for some equivalent offence or injury done to the society in which he enjoyed that right.

If ■ number of men are unjustly deprived of ■ common right, and the ■ is given in addition to the common rights of another number, who have not merited such addition, the injustice is double.

Few, if any, of the boroughs in England, ever performed any *such* particular service to the nation, entitling them to what they now claim ■ a privilege in elections.

Originally, in England, when the king issued his writs calling upon counties, cities, and boroughs, to depute persons who should meet him in parliament, the intention was to obtain by that means more perfect information of the general state of the kingdom, its faculties, strength, and disposition; together with the advice their accumulated wisdom might afford him in "such arduous affairs of the realm" ■ he had to propose. And he might reasonably hope that ■ approved by the deputies in such ■ assembly would, ■ their return home, be by them well explained, and rendered agreeable to their constituents and the nation in general. At that time, being sent ■ parliament ■ not considered as being put into the way of preferment, or increase of fortune; therefore ■ bribe was given to obtain the appoint-

ment. The deputies were to be paid wages by their constituents: therefore the being obliged to send and pay was considered rather a duty than a privilege. At this day, in New England, many towns who may, and ought, to send members to the assembly, sometimes neglect to do it; they are then summoned to answer for their neglect, and fined if they cannot give a good excuse; such is a common misfortune, or an extraordinary public expense, which disabled them from affording, conveniently, the necessary wages. And the wages allowed being barely sufficient to defray the deputy's expense, no solicitations were used to be chosen.

In England, as well as the being sent to parliament was found to be a step towards acquiring both honor and fortune, solicitations were practised, and where they were insufficient, money was given. Both the ambitious and avaricious became candidates. But to solicit the poor laborer for his vote being humiliating to the proud man, and to pay for it hurting the lover of money, they, when they met, joined in an act to diminish both these inconveniencies, by depriving the poor of the right of voting, which certainly they were not empowered to do by the electors their constituents, the majority of whom were probably people of little property. The act was, therefore, not only unjust, but void. These lower people were imme-

diately afterwards oppressed by another act, empowering the justices to fix the hire of day laborers and their hours of work, and to send them to the house of correction if they refused to work for such hire; which was deposing them from their condition of freemen, and making them literally slaves.

But this was taking from *many* freemen ■ *common right*, and confining it to a *few*. To give it back again to the many is ■ different operation. Of this the few have no just cause to complain, because they still retain the common right they always had, and they lose only the exclusive additional power which they ought never to have had. And if they used it when they had it, ■ a means of obtaining money, they should in justice, were it practicable, be obliged to refund and distribute such money among those who had been so unjustly deprived of their right of voting, or forfeit it to the public.

Corporations, therefore, or boroughs, who from being originally called to send deputies to parliament, when it was considered merely as ■ duty, and not as a particular privilege, and therefore was never purchased by any equivalent service to the public, continue to send, now that by ■ change of times it affords them profit in bribes, or emoluments of various kinds, have in reality *no right* to such advantages; which are besides in effect prejudicial to the nation, some of those who buy thinking they may also sell.

They should therefore, in justice, be immediately deprived of such pretended right, and reduced to the condition of common freemen.

But they are perhaps too strong, and their interest too weighty, to permit such justice to be done. And a regard for public good in these people, influencing a voluntary resignation, is not to be expected.

If that be the case, it may be necessary to submit to the power of present circumstances, passions, and prejudices, and purchase, since we can do no better, their consent; ■ men, when they cannot otherwise recover property unjustly detained from them, advertise a reward to whoever will restore it, promising that ■ questions shall be asked.

B. F.

LETTER FROM ■■ CHARLES WYVILL, IN ANSWER
TO THE FOREGOING.

SIR,

Paris, June 17, 1785.

I have received the honor of your letter of the 16th instant, accompanied with a paper, in which you have proved, by a short train of clear and satisfactory reasoning, that the elective franchise now enjoyed by the small boroughs in England, is not an absolute right, which can only be forfeited on condition of misusage, but that it is ■ privilege conferred upon them in different periods of our history with partiality, and in a manner injurious to

the common right of representation; and consequently, that it is a privilege justly resumable by the state, without the consent of such boroughs previously obtained, without any previous proof of their delinquency, or any compensation for their abolished franchise: at the same time, you have admitted the expediency, in the present state of our constitution, and under the various disadvantages attending an attempt to restore it, that a pecuniary offer should be proposed, as an inducement to the small boroughs to make a voluntary surrender of their obnoxious privilege.

Accept, sir, my best thanks for this very kind communication of your sentiments on a subject of much importance to the happiness of England. From their own intrinsic solidity, those sentiments must have great weight with every unprejudiced mind, even if it should not be thought advisable to apprise the public. They are the sentiments of a man to whose ability and persevering virtue the American States are principally indebted for their political salvation. But highly as I esteem the wisdom of your opinion and advice, I place a still higher value on that philanthropy which has induced you to bestow so much attention on this subject, in the midst of your many urgent avocations, when just on the point of leaving Europe to return to America; I consider this not only as a mark of your general benevolence, but as a proof that your peculiar good-will to England, lately

common country, has neither been diminished by any personal disgust, nor impaired by the hostilities of an unhappy civil war. And I trust that, on this occasion, your benevolence has not been misplaced; since the advocates for a reformation of the English parliament have been, I believe, without exception, zealous opponents of the American war; and the success of their attempt to improve the constitution of England, may possibly conduct our two countries, in due time, to that modified reunion which recent events will admit, and which you would be equally honorable and advantageous to both.

I am, with the highest respect, your obliged and most obedient servant,

C. WYVILL.

MILITIA PREFERABLE TO REGULAR TROOPS.

Abbé Morellet's Questions and B. Franklin's Answers.

Je prie Monsieur Franklin de vouloir bien répondre aux questions suivantes by *yes* or *no*.

Croit-il que les Etats Unis puissent dans la suite et après leur indépendance reconnue passer de troupes régulières toujours à pied?—Yes.

Feront-ils mieux de n'avoir que des milices nationales?—Certainly.

Des milices coûteront-elles moins cher à l'état ou plutôt à la nation; car ne peut-on pas dire que

dans un état de choses où tous les citoyens doivent s'exercer à porter les armes il y a en fin de compte, en perte de tems, en dépenses pour l'armement, pour l'habillement, pour le rassemblement des troupes à certains tems de l'année, &c. une dépense réelle plus grande que celle qu'il faudroit pour tenir sur pied un petit nombre de troupes régulières?

Supposing a general militia to be equally expensive with a body of regular troops, yet the militia is preferable; because the whole being especially disciplined, has nothing to fear from a part.

Monsieur Franklin croit-il qu'on puisse entretenir une Amérique un corps de troupes sur pied dans chaque province confédérée sans mettre la liberté en danger?

Europe was without regular troops till lately. One powerful prince keeping an army always on foot makes it necessary for his neighbor to do the same to prevent surprise. We have no such dangerous neighbors in America. We shall probably keep magazines of powder and ammunition always filled, and no European power will find us so unprovided as England found us at the beginning of this war, or can prepare to invade us with a sufficient force in so short a time as not to give us time sufficient to discipline force sufficient to repel the invader.

Mr. F. therefore thinks, that to avoid not only the expense, but the danger of keeping up a body

of regular troops in time of peace; none of the
 ■■■ separately will do it, nor the congress for
 the whole.

PROJECT FOR PREVENTING WARS.

(Extract of a Letter to Dr. Ingenhausz.)

Philadelphia, February 11, 1788.

“ I lament with you the prospect of a horrid war, which is likely to engage a great part of mankind: There is a little good gained and so much mischief done generally by wars, that I wish the imprudence of undertaking them were more evident to princes; in which ■■■ I think they would be less frequent. If I were counsellor to the Empress of Russia, and found that she desired to possess some part of the dominions of the Grand Signior, I should advise her to compute what the annual taxes raised from that territory may amount to, and make him ■■■ offer of buying it at the rate of paying for it twenty years’ purchase. And if I were his counsellor, I should advise him to take the money, and cede the dominion of that territory. For I ■■■ of opinion, that a war to obtain it will cost her more than that sum, and the event uncertain; and the defence of it will cost him ■■■ much; and, not having embraced the offer, his loss is double. But to make and accept such an offer, these potentates should be both of them reasonable creatures; and free from the ambition of

glory, &c. which perhaps is too much ■ be supposed.'

"I am glad that peace is likely to be established in your native country," with ■ little expense of blood, though it be done in a ■ not agreeable to ■ great part of the nation. If the French had entered with the Prussians, and made it the seat of war, the mischief would have been infinite."

SOME GOOD WHIG PRINCIPLES.

[*A printed paper, of which the following is ■ copy, ■ found among Dr. Franklin's papers, indorsed by him ■ above.*]

DECLARATION of those **RIGHTS** of the Commonalty of Great Britain, *without which they cannot be FREE.*

It is declared,

First, That the government of this realm, and the making of laws for the same, ought to be lodged in the hands of King, Lords of parliament, and Representatives of *the whole body* of the Freemen of this realm.

Secondly, That *every man* of the commonalty (excepting infants, insane persons, and criminals,)

¹ See Letter to ■ Vaughan, Esq. Oct. 24, 1783.—PRIVATE CORRESPONDENCE, Part I.

■ Holland.

is, of *natural* right, and by the laws of God, a *freeman*, and entitled to the free enjoyment of *liberty*.

Thirdly, That liberty, or freedom, consists in having *an* *actual share* in the appointment of those who frame the laws, and who *are* to be the guardians of every man's life, property, and peace; for, the *all* of one *man* is *as* dear to him *as* the *all* of another; and the poor man has *an* *equal* right, but *they* need to have representatives in the legislature than the rich one.

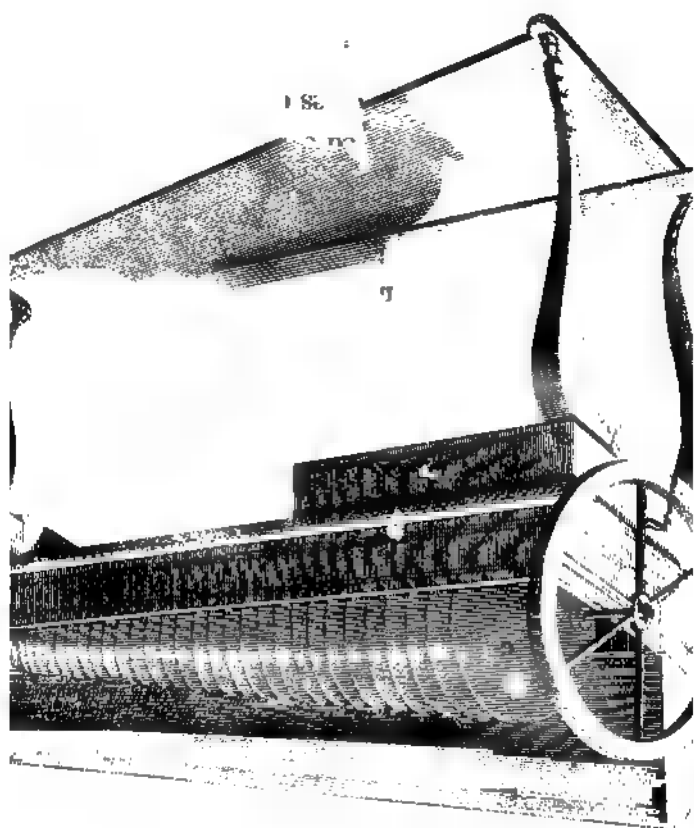
Fourthly, That they who have *no* voice nor vote in the electing of representatives, *do not enjoy* liberty; but are absolutely *enslaved* to those who *have* votes, and to their representatives; for, to be enslaved, is to have governors whom *other men have set over us*, and to be subject to laws *made by the representatives of others*, without having had representatives of our *own* to give consent in *our* behalf.

Fifthly, That *a* *very great majority* of the commonalty of this realm *are* denied the privilege of voting for representatives in parliament; and, consequently, they *are* enslaved to *a* *small number*, who do *not* enjoy the privilege exclusively to themselves; but who, it may be presumed, *are* far from wishing to continue in the exclusive possession of *a* privilege, by which their fellow-subjects are deprived of *natural* right, of justice, of liberty; and which, if not communicated to all, must speed-

ily cause *the certain overthrow of* ■■■ *happy constitution, and enslave* ■■ *all.*

And sixthly and lastly, We also say and do assert, that it is *the right* of the commonalty of this realm to elect ■ *new* House of Commons once in *every year*, according to the ancient and sacred laws of the land: because whenever a parliament continues in being for ■ *longer term*, very great numbers of the commonalty, who have arrived at years of manhood since the last election, and *therefore* have ■ right to be actually represented in the House of Commons, are then *unjustly deprived* of that right.

END OF PART III.



PART IV.

PHILOSOPHICAL SUBJECTS.

DESCRIPTION OF A ■■■ MUSICAL INSTRUMENT COMPOSED OF GLASSES, CALLED ■■■ ARMO- NICA.¹

TO THE REV. FATHER BECCARIA.

REV. SIR, *London, July 13, 1762.*

I ONCE promised myself the pleasure of seeing you at Turin; but as that is not now likely to happen, being just about returning to my native country; America, I sit down to take leave of you (among others of my European friends that I ■■■ not see) by writing.

I thank you for the agreeable mention you have so frequently made of me in your letters to Mr. Collinson and others, for the generous defence you undertook and executed with ■■■ much success, of my electrical opinions; and for the valuable present you made me of your new work, from which

I have received great information and pleasure. I wish I could in return entertain you with any thing of mine on that subject; but I have not lately pursued it. Nor do I know of any one here that is at present much engaged in it.

Perhaps, however, it may be agreeable to you, as you live in a musical country, to have an account of the instrument lately added here to the great number that charming science before possessed of.—As it is an instrument that seems peculiarly adapted to Italian music, especially that of the soft and plaintive kind, I will endeavor to give you such a description of it, and of the manner of constructing it, that you or any of your friends may be enabled to imitate it, if you incline so to do, without being at the expense and trouble of the many experiments I have made in endeavoring to bring it to its present perfection.

You have doubtless heard the sweet tone that is drawn from a drinking-glass, by passing a wet finger round its brim. One Mr. Puckeridge, a gentleman from Ireland, was the first who thought of playing tunes, formerly of these tones. He collected a number of glasses of different sizes, fixed them each other on a table, and tuned them by putting into them water, more or less, as each note required. The tones were brought out by passing his fingers round their brims. He was unfortunately burnt here, with his instrument, in a fire which consumed the house he lived in. Mr.

E. Delaval, a most ingenious member of our Royal Society, made one in imitation of it, with a better choice and form of glasses, which was the first I saw or heard. Being charmed with the sweetness of its tones, and the music he produced from it, I wished only to have the glasses disposed in a more convenient form, and brought together in a circular compass, so as to admit of a greater number of tones, and all within reach of hand to a person sitting before the instrument, which I accomplished, after various intermediate trials, and less commodious forms, both of glasses and construction, in the following manner.

The glasses were blown as near as possible in the form of hemispheres, having each an open neck or socket in the middle.¹ The thickness of the glass at the brim about a tenth of an inch, or hardly quite so much, but thicker as it comes nearer the neck, which in the largest glasses is about an inch deep, and an inch and half wide within, these dimensions lessening as the glasses themselves diminish in size, except that the neck of the smallest ought not to be shorter than half an inch. The largest glass is nine inches diameter, and the smallest three inches. Between these three were twenty-three different sizes, differing from each other by a quarter of an inch in diameter. To make a single instrument there should be

¹ See Plate 1.—A.

six glasses blown of each size; and out of this number one may probably pick thirty-seven glasses (which are sufficient for three octaves with all the semitones) that will be each either the note one ~~semitone~~ a little sharper than that note, and fitting well into each other to taper pretty regularly from the largest to the smallest. It is true there are not thirty-seven sizes; but it often happens that two of the same size differ a half note in tone, by a difference in thickness, and these may be placed in the other without sensibly hurting the regularity of the taper form.

The glasses being chosen, and every marked with ■ diamond the note you intend it for, they are to be tuned by diminishing the thickness of those that are too sharp. This is done by grinding them round from the neck towards the brim, the breadth of one or two inches, ■ may be required; often trying the glass by a well-tuned harpsichord, comparing the tone drawn from the glass by your finger, with the note you want, ■ sounded by that string of the harpsichord. When you come nearer the matter, be careful to wipe the glass clean and dry before each trial, because the tone is something flatter when the glass is wet, than it will be when dry;—^{a l.} adding a very little between each trial, you will thereby tune to .

The is necessary in this, because ■ you go below your required tone, there

is not sharpening it again but by grinding somewhat off the brim, which will afterwards require polishing, and thus increase the trouble.

The glasses being thus tuned, you are to be provided with a case for them, and a spindle on which they are to be fixed. My case is about three feet long, eleven inches every way wide within at the biggest end, and five inches at the smallest end; for it tapers all the way, to adapt it better to the conical figure of the set of glasses. This case opens in the middle of its height, and the upper part turns up by hinges fixed behind. The spindle, which is of hard iron, lies horizontally from end to end of the box within, exactly in the middle, and is made to turn on brass gudgeons at each end. It is round, one inch diameter at the thickest end, and tapering to a quarter of an inch at the smallest.—A square shank comes from its thickest end through the box, on which shank a wheel is fixed by a screw. This wheel acts as a fly to make the motion equable, when the spindle, with the glasses, is turned by the foot like a spinning-wheel. My wheel is of mahogany, eighteen inches diameter, and pretty thick, so as to conceal its circumference about 25lb. of lead.—An ivory pin is fixed in the face of this wheel, about four inches from the axis. Over the neck of this pin is put the loop of the string that comes up from the moveable step to give it

motion. The case stands in a frame, with
 four legs.

To fix the glasses on the spindle, a cork is first
 to be fitted in each neck pretty tight, and project-
 ing a little without the neck, that the neck of one
 may not touch the inside of another when put
 together, for that would make a jarring. These
 corks are to be perforated with holes of different
 diameters, to suit that part of the spindle on
 which they are to be fixed. When a glass is put
 on, by holding it stiffly between both hands, while
 another turns the spindle, it may be gradually
 brought to its place. But care must be taken
 the hole be not too small, lest, in forcing it up,
 the neck should split; nor too large, lest the glass
 not being firmly fixed should turn or slip on the
 spindle, so as to touch and jar against its neigh-
 boring glass. The glasses thus placed one in
 another, the largest at the biggest end of the
 spindle, which is to the left hand; the neck of
 this glass is towards the wheel, and the next goes
 into it in the same position, only about an inch of
 its brim appearing beyond the rim of the first:
 thus proceeding, every glass when fixed shows
 an inch of its brim (or three quarters of an
 inch, or half an inch, as they grow smaller) beyond
 the brim of the glass that contains it; and it is
 from these exposed parts of each glass that the
 light is drawn, by laying a finger upon one of them
 as the spindle and glasses turn round.

My largest glass is G, a little below the reach of a [redacted] voice, and my highest G, including three complete octaves.—To distinguish the glasses the more readily to the eye, I have painted the apparent parts of the glasses within side, every semitone white, and the other notes of the octave [redacted] the seven prismatic colors, viz. C, red; D, orange; E, yellow; F, green; G, blue; A, indigo; B, purple; and C, red again;—so that glasses of the [redacted] color (the white excepted) are always octaves to each other.

This instrument is played upon, by sitting before the middle of the set of glasses [redacted] before the keys of a harpsichord, turning them with the foot, and wetting them now and then with a sponge and clean water. The fingers should be first a little soaked in water, and quite free from all greasiness; a little fine chalk upon them is sometimes useful, to make them catch the glass and bring [redacted] the tone more readily. Both hands are used, by which means different parts [redacted] played together.—Observe, that the tones are best drawn out when the glasses turn *from* the ends of the fingers, not when they turn [redacted] them.

The advantages of this instrument are, [redacted] [redacted] incomparably sweet beyond those of any other; that they may be swelled and softened at pleasure by stronger or weaker pressures of the finger, and continued to [redacted] length; and [redacted] the instrument, being once well tuned, [redacted] again wants tuning.

In honor of your musical language, I have borrowed from it the name of this instrument, calling it the Armonica. With great esteem and respect, I am, &c. B. FRANKLIN.

ANSWER TO SEVERAL QUERIES OF MESSRS. J. & W. BARNARD, RESPECTING THE ARMONICA.

London, Dec. 8, 1772.

WHEN the glasses are ranged in the horizontal spindle, or, to make use of your expression, *enfilés*, and that each is definitely fixed in its place,—the whole of the largest glass appears, at the extremity to the left; the following one, nearly closed in the preceding one, shows only about an inch of its border, which advances much further than the edge of the larger glass;—and so, in succession, each glass exceeds the one containing it, leaving by this placement an uncovered border on which the fingers may be applied. The glasses do not touch one another, but they are so near not to admit a finger to pass between them; that the interior border is not susceptible of being rubbed.

The finger is to be applied flat to the borders of the largest glasses, and on the borders of the smaller; but in part on the borders, and in part to the edges, of the glasses of intermediate size.

Nothing but experience can instruct with respect to this manutation, (*fingering*), because the different-sized glasses require to be touched differently—some the edge, others farther from it. A few hours' exercise will teach this.

B. F.

Craven Street, 1762.

DID you ever see people at work with spades and pickaxes, digging a cellar? When they have loosened the earth perhaps a foot deep, that loose earth may be carried off, or they may go no deeper; it is in their way, and hinders the operation of the instruments.

When the first foot of earth is removed, they can dig and loosen the earth a foot deeper. But if those who remove the earth should with it take away the spades and pickaxes, the work will be equally obstructed as if they had the loose earth unremoved.

I imagine the operation of fire upon fuel with the assistance of air may be in some degree similar to this. Fire penetrates bodies, and separates their parts; the air receives and carries off the parts separated, which if not carried off would impede the action of the fire. With this assistance therefore of a moderate current of air, the separation increases, but too violent a blast carries off the fire

itself; and thus any fire may be blown out, as a candle by the breath, if the blast be proportionable.

But if air contributed inflammatory matter, as some have thought, then it should seem, that the more air the more the flame would be augmented, which beyond certain bounds does not agree with the fact.

Some substances take fire, i. e. are kindled by the application of fire much ~~more~~ than others. This is in proportion as they ~~are~~ good or bad ~~conductors~~ of fire, and ~~as~~ their parts cohere with less or more strength. A bad conductor of fire not easily permitting it to penetrate and be absorbed, and its force divided among the whole substance, its operation is so much the stronger ~~the~~ the surface to which it is applied, and ~~in~~ in a small depth of surface strong enough to produce the separation of parts which we call *burning*. All oils and fats, wax, sulphur, and most vegetable substances, ~~are~~ bad conductors of fire. The oil of a lamp, burning at the top, may be scarce ~~at~~ at the bottom; a candle ~~in~~ a stick of wood inflamed at one end, is cool at the other. Metals, which are better conductors, ~~are~~ not so easily kindled, though, when sufficient fire ~~is~~ applied to them to separate their parts, they will all burn. But ~~if~~ fire applied to their surfaces enters more easily, is absorbed and divided; and not enough left on the surface to overcome the cohesion of ~~their~~ their parts. A close contact with metals will for the same reason prevent

■ burning of more inflammable substances. A flaxen thread, bound close round an iron poker, will not burn in the flame of ■ candle; for it must imbibe ■ certain quantity of fire before it can burn, i. e. before its parts can separate: but the poker, as fast ■ the fire arrives, takes it from the thread, conducts it away, and divides it in its own substance.

Common fire I conceive to be collected by friction from the common mass of that fluid, in the same manner ■ the electrical fluid is collected by friction, which I have endeavored to explain in ■ of my electrical papers, and, to avoid length in this letter, refer you to them. In wheels the particles of grease and oil acting ■ so many little rollers, and preventing friction between the wood and wood, do thereby prevent the collection of fire.

MINUTE INSTANCE OF THE DEATH OF OIL WATER.

TO DR. PRINGLE, LONDON.

SIR,

Philadelphia, Dec. 1, 1762.

DURING our passage to Madeira, the weather being warm, and the cabin windows constantly open, for the benefit of the air, the candles at night flared and ran very much; which was an inconvenience. At Madeira we got oil to burn, and with a common glass tumbler or beaker, slung in

wire, and suspended to the cieling of the cabin, and a little wire hoop for the wick, furnished with corks to float ■ the oil, I made an Italian lamp, that gave ■ very good light all over the table.— The glass at bottom contained water to about one third of its height; another third ■■ taken up with oil; the rest ■■ left empty, that the sides of the glass might protect the flame from the wind. There is nothing remarkable in all this; but what follows is particular. At supper, looking on the lamp, I remarked, that though the surface of the oil ■■ perfectly tranquil, and duly preserved its position and distance with regard to the brim of the glass, the water under the oil ■■ in great commotion, rising and falling in irregular waves, which continued during the whole evening. The lamp ■■ kept burning ■ ■ watch-light all night, till the oil was spent, and the water only remained. In the morning I observed, that though the motion of the ship continued the same, the water was now quiet, and its surface as tranquil ■■ that of the oil had been the evening before. At night again, when oil ■■ put upon it, the water resumed its irregular motions, rising in high ■■■■ almost to the surface of the oil, but without disturbing the smooth level of that surface. And this was repeated every day during the voyage.

Since my arrival in America, I have repeated the experiment frequently thus: ■ have put a pack-thread round ■ tumbler, with strings of the

same from each side, meeting above it in a knot at about a foot distance from the top of the tumbler. Then putting in as much water as would fill about the third part of the tumbler, I lifted it up by the knot, and swung it to and fro in the air; when the water appeared to keep its place in the tumbler as steadily as if it had been ice. But pouring gently in upon the water about as much oil, and then again swinging it in the air as before, the tranquillity before possessed by the water, was transferred to the surface of the oil, and the water under it was agitated with the same commotions as at sea.

I have shown this experiment to a number of ingenious persons. Those who are but slightly acquainted with the principles of hydrostatics, &c. are apt to fancy immediately that they understand it, and readily attempt to explain it; but their explanations have been different, and to me not very intelligible. Others, more deeply skilled in those principles, are to wonder at it, and promise to consider it. And I think it is worth considering: for its appearance, if it cannot be explained by the old principles, may afford us new ones, of use perhaps in explaining some other obscure parts of natural knowledge. I am, &c. B. FRANKLIN.

ON THE ELECTRICITY ■ FOGS.

TO THOMAS RONAYNE,—CORK.

London, April 20, 1766.

I received your very obliging and ingenious letter by Captain Kearney. Your observations on the Electricity of Fogs, and of the air in Ireland, and of the several circumstances attending a thunder-storm, are very curious; and I thank you for them. I have endeavored to get Father Beccaria's book for you, but find it is not to be had here: 'tis in 2 vols. 4to. in Italian, printed at Turin. In my opinion no part of the earth is, or can be, in a negative state of electricity naturally; and though an inequality may in some circumstances be occasioned, an equality would soon follow, from the extreme subtilty of the electric fluid, and the good conductors the moist earth is filled with. But yet I think when a highly-charged positive cloud approaches the earth, it repels and drives inward the natural quantity of electricity in the superficial parts, and in buildings, trees, &c. as to bring them into a real negative state before it strikes. And I think the negative you often find your balls in that hang to your apparatus, is not occasioned always by negative clouds, but often by positive clouds having passed over it, which, in passing, have repelled and driven out part of the quantity of electricity that was in the apparatus; so that when they are passed, the re-

mainder diffusing itself equally in the apparatus, the whole is in a negative state. If you have read my experiments in pursuance of those made by Mr. Canton (they are in vol. 40 of the Transactions), you will easily understand this. But you may readily make some experiments which will show it clearly. Make a common wine-glass warm by the fire, that it may keep quite dry for some time; set it on a table, and place on it Mr. Canton's little box; the balls hanging from the box a little beyond the edge of the table. Rub another common wine-glass with a piece of black silk, or even a common silk handkerchief, so as to excite it. Then bring the glass over the box at the end farthest from the balls, at three or four inches' distance, and you will see the balls diverge, being then electrified positively by the natural quantity of electricity that was in the box, driven to that end by the repelling force of the atmosphere of the rubbed glass. Touch the box with the balls (the rubbed glass remaining as at first), and the balls will come together, your finger taking away the quantity driven to that end. Then withdraw finger and glass at the same time, and the quantity left in the box diffusing itself equally, the balls will diverge again and be negative. While in this state, rub your glass afresh, and pass it over the box without coming too near, and you will see, as you approach it, the balls come close; they are then in a natural state: as the glass comes nearer, they

open again; they are then positive. When the glass passes and begins to leave them, they close again, and are then in the natural state. When it has quite left them, they open again, and are then negative. The rubbed glass may represent a positively charged cloud, which you is thus capable of producing all the changes in the apparatus without the necessity of supposing any negative cloud at all. But yet I am convinced there are negative clouds; because they will sometimes drink at and through the apparatus a large full bottle of positive electricity, of which the apparatus itself could not have received and retained the hundredth part. And, indeed, it is easy to conceive how a strongly charged large positive cloud may reduce smaller clouds to a negative state, as it passes over them, by driving their natural quantity out of them to their under side, whence it strikes into the earth, or to their farther end, whence it strikes into neighboring clouds; so that when the great cloud has passed and removed farther, they are left in a negative state, like the apparatus; they being, as well as it, often insulated bodies, not in contact with the earth or another. And in the same manner it is equally easy to conceive how a large negative cloud may make others positive. The experiment you mention of filing the glass is similar to one I made in 1751, and 1752. I had supposed in my letter that the internal pores of glass were less than

those ■■■ the surface, and so denied ■ passage to ■■ electric fluid. To try whether this was ■ in fact, I ground one of my phials ■ one side extremely thin, passing ■ good way beyond the middle of the thickness, and very near to the other side, as I found on breaking it after the experiment. It charged ■ well after grinding as before; which satisfied ■■ that my hypothesis ■■ in that particular wrong. It is hard to conceive where the additional quantity on the charged side of glass is deposited, there is ■ much of it. I send you my meteorological paper, which has lately been printed here in the Transactions, following ■ paper of Mr. Hamilton's ■■ the same subject. I am, &c.

B. FRANKLIN.

CONJECTURE ■ ■■ ELEPHANTS BEING NATIVES
OF AMERICA.

To MR. CROGHAN.

SIR,

London, Aug. 5, 1767.

I return you many thanks for the box of elephants' tusks and grinders. They ■■ extremely curious on many accounts; no living elephants having been ■■ in any part of America by any of the Europeans settled there, ■ remembered in any tradition of the Indians. It is also puzzling to conceive what should have brought ■ many ■ them to die on the ■■ spot; and that ■ such remains should be found ■ any other part of the

continent, except in that very distant country Peru, from whence some grinders of the same kind formerly brought, are now in the museum of the Royal Society. The tusks agree with those of the African and Asiatic elephant, in being nearly of the same form and texture; and some of them, notwithstanding the length of time they must have lain, being still good ivory. But the grinders differ, being full of knobs, like the grinders of a carnivorous animal; when those of the elephant, who eats only vegetables, are almost smooth. But then we know of no other animal with tusks like an elephant, to whom such grinders might belong. It is remarkable, that elephants never inhabit naturally only hot countries where there is no winter, and yet these remains are found in a winter country; and it is no extraordinary thing to find elephants' tusks in Siberia, in great quantities, when their rivers overflow, and wash away the earth, though Siberia is still a wintery country than that on the Ohio; which looks as if the earth had anciently been in another position, and the climates differently placed from what they are at present. With great regard, I am, sir, your most obedient humble servant,

B. FRANKLIN.

ON **COLICA PICTORUM**, AND PERNICIOUS USE
OF LEAD IN DISTILLERIES.

TO DR. EVANS.

DEAR SIR, *London, Feb. 20, 1768.*

I wrote you a few lines by Capt. Falconer, and
you Dr. Watson's new piece of Experiments
in Inoculation, which I hope will be agreeable to
you.

In yours of November 20, you mention the lead
in the worms of stills as a probable cause of the
dry belly-ache among punch-drinkers in our West
Indies. I had before acquainted Dr. Baker with
a fact of that kind, the general mischief done by
the use of leaden worms, when rum-distilling
first practised in New England, which occasioned
a severe law there against them; and he has men-
tioned it in the second part of his piece not yet
published. I have long been of opinion, that that
distemper proceeds always from a metallic
only; observing that it affects, among tradesmen,
those that use lead, however different their trades
—as glaziers, letter-founders, plumbers, potters,
white-lead makers, and painters: from the latter,
it has been conjectured, it took its *colica pic-
torum*, by the mistake of a letter, and not from its
being the disease of Poictou; and although the
of stills ought to be of pure tin, they are
often made of pewter, which has a great mixture
in it of lead.

The Boston people pretending to interfere with the manufactures of this country, make a great clamor here against America in general. I have therefore endeavored to palliate matters a little in several public papers. It would, you justly observe, give less umbrage if we meddled only with such manufactures as England does not attend to. That of linen might be carried on a little less in every family, and silk, I think, in most of the colonies. But there are many manufactures that we cannot carry on to advantage, though at entire liberty. And after all, the true source of riches is husbandry. That is truly productive of new wealth; manufacturers only change forms, and whatever value they give to the materials they work upon, they at the same time consume an equal value in provisions, &c. So that riches are not increased by manufacturing; the only advantage is, that provisions in the shape of manufactures are more easily carried for sale to foreign markets. And where they cannot be easily carried to market, 'tis well to transform them for our own use as well as foreign sale. In families also, where the children and servants of families have spare time, 'tis well to employ it in making something. I am, with thanks for your good wishes, dear sir, your's, &c. B. FRANKLIN.

III CHIMNIES, &c.

TO LORD KAIMES.

London, Feb. 28, 1768.

IT gave ■■■ great pleasure to ■■■ my dear good friend's name at the foot of ■ letter I received the other day, having been often uneasy at his long silence, blaming myself as the cause by my ■■■ previous backwardness and want of punctuality ■ ■ correspondent. I ■■■ suppose, (as in this he mentions nothing of it,) that a long letter I wrote him about this time twelvemonth, on the subject of the disputes with America, did miscarry, or that his answer to that letter miscarried, ■ I have never heard from him since I wrote that letter.

I have long been of an opinion similar to that you express, and think happiness consists more in small conveniencies or pleasures that occur every day, than in great pieces of good fortune that happen but seldom to a ■■■ in the course of his life. Thus I reckon it among my felicities, that I can set my own razor, and shave myself perfectly well; in which I have a daily pleasure, and avoid the uneasiness ■■■ is sometimes obliged to suffer from the dirty fingers or ■■■ breath of a slovenly barber.

I congratulate you on the purchase of a new house ■ much to your mind, and wish that you may long inhabit it ■■■ comfort. The inconvenience you mention of neighboring smoke coming

down the vents, is not owing to any bad construction of the vent down which it comes, and therefore not to be remedied by any change of form. It is merely the effect of a law of nature, whereby, when the outward air is warmer than the walls of the vent, the air included being by those walls made colder, and of course denser and heavier than an equal column of the outward air, descends into the room, and in descending draws other air into the vent above to supply its place; which, being in its turn cooled and condensed by the cooler walls of the vent descends also, and the current downwards is continued during the continuance of such difference in temperament between the outward air and the walls of the vent. When this difference is destroyed, by the outward air growing cooler, and the walls growing warmer, the current downwards ceases; and when the outward air becomes still colder than the walls, the current changes and moves from below upwards, the walls rarefying the air they include, and thereby making it much lighter than a column of the outward air of equal height, that it is obliged to give way to the other's superior weight and rise, is succeeded by colder air, which being warmed and rarefied in its turn, rises also, and so the upward current is continued. In summer, when fires are not made in the chimnies, the current generally downward from nine or ten in the morning during the heat of the day, five or six in the afternoon,

then begins to hesitate, and afterwards to set upwards during the night, continuing till about nine in the morning, then hesitating for some time before it again sets downwards for the day. This is the general course, with ■■■ occasional variation of hours, according to the length of days or changes of weather. Now when the air of any vent is in this descending state, if the smoke issuing from a neighboring vent happens to be carried over it by the wind, part will be drawn in and brought down into the room. The proper remedy then is, to close the opening of the chimney in the room by a board so fitted that little or no air can pass, whereby the currents above-mentioned will be prevented. This board to remain during the summer, and when fires ■■■ not made in the chimney. Chimnies that have fires in them daily are not subject to this inconvenience, the walls of their vents being kept too warm to occasion any downward current during the hours between the going out of one fire and the kindling of another. And indeed, in summer, those vents that happen to go up close joined with the kitchen vent, are generally kept ■■ warm by that as to be free from the downward current, and therefore free from what you call neighbor smoke.

The Philadelphia grate which you mention is a very good thing, if you could get ■■■ that is rightly made, and ■ workman ■■■ in putting them up. Those generally made and used here ■■ much

hurt by fancied improvements in their construction, and I cannot recommend them. As fuel with you is cheap and plenty, ■ saving in it is ■■■■■ ■■■■■ object. The sliding plates (of which I sent ■ model to Sir Alex. Dick) are, in my opinion, the most convenient for your purpose, ■■■ they keep a room sufficiently warm, are simple machines, easily fixed, and their management easily conceived and understood by servants.

I shall leave Europe with much greater regret if I cannot first visit you and my other friends in Scotland. I promise myself this happiness, but am not yet clear that I shall have time for it. Your kind invitation ■■■ extremely obliging. With sincere esteem I am, my dear friend, yours most affectionately,

B. F.

■■■ ASTRONOMICAL SUBJECTS, ELECTRICITY, &C. . .

To Mr. WINTHROP.

DEAR SIR,

London, July 2, 1768.

You must needs think the time long that your instruments have been in hand. Sundry circumstances have occasioned the delay. Mr. Short, who undertook to make the telescope, ■■■ long in ■ bad state of health, and much in the country for the benefit of the air. He however ■ length finished the material parts that required his ■■■ hand, and waited only for something about the mounting that ■■■ to have been done by another

workman; when he ■■■ removed by death. I have put in my claim to the instrument, and shall obtain it from the executors ■■■ ■■■ his affairs can be settled. It is ■■■ become much ■■■ valuable than it would have been if he had lived, as he excelled all others in that branch. The price agreed for was 100/.

The equal altitudes and transit instrument ■■■ undertaken by Mr. Bird, who doing all his work with his own hands for the sake of greater truth and exactness, ■■■ must have patience that expects any thing from him. He is ■ singularly eminent in his way, that the commissioners of longitude have lately given him 500/ merely to discover and make public his method of dividing instruments. I send it you herewith. But what has made him longer in producing your instrument is, the great and hasty demand ■ him from France and Russia, and ■ society here for instruments to go to different parts of the world for observing the next transit of Venus; ■■■ to be used in Siberia, some for the observers that go to the South Seas, some for those that go to Hudson's Bay. These are ■■■ all completed and mostly gone, it being necessary on account of the distance, that they should go this year to be ready on the spot in time. And ■■■ he tells me he ■■■ finish yours, and that I shall have it next week. Possibly he may keep his word. But ■■■ not to wonder if he does not.

Mr. Martin, when I called to ■■■ his panopticon, had not one ready; but ■■■ to let ■■■ know when he should have one to show me. I have not since heard from him, but will call again.

Mr. Maskelyne wishes much that ■■■ of the governments in North America would send an astronomer to Lake Superior to observe this transit. I know no one of them likely to have a spirit for such ■■ undertaking, unless it be the Massachusetts, or that have ■ person and instruments suitable. He presents you one of his pamphlets, which I now send you, together with two letters from him to me, relating to that observation. If your health and strength were sufficient for such an expedition, I should be glad to hear you had undertaken it. Possibly you may have an *élève* that is capable. The fitting you out to observe the former transit, was a public act for the benefit of science, that did your province great honor.

We expect soon a new volume of the Transactions, in which your piece will be printed. I have not yet got the separate ones which I ordered.

It is perhaps not ■■ extraordinary that unlearned men, such ■■ commonly compose ■■■ church vestries, should not yet be acquainted with, and ■■■ sible of the benefit of metal conductors, in averting the stroke of lightning, and preserving ■■■ houses from its violent effects; ■■ that they should be still prejudiced against the ■■■ of such conductors, when ■■ see how long ■■■ philosophers,

■ of extensive science and great ingenuity, can hold out against the evidence of ■ knowledge that does not square with their preconceptions, and how long ■ can retain a practice that is conformable to their prejudices, and expect ■ benefit from such practice, though constant experience shows its inutility. A late piece of the *Abbé Nollet*, printed last year in the *Memoirs of the French Academy of Sciences*, affords strong instances of this; for though the very relations he gives of the effects of lightning in several churches and other buildings, shows clearly that it was conducted from one part to another by wires, gildings, ■ other pieces of metal that were within, or connected with the building; yet in the ■ paper he objects to the providing metalline conductors *without the building*, as useless or dangerous. He cautions people not to ring the church bells during a thunder storm, lest the lightning in its way to the earth should be conducted down to them by the bell-ropes, which ■ but bad conductors; and yet ■ against fixing rods ■ the outside of the steeple, which ■ known to be much better conductors, and which it would certainly choose to pass in, rather than in dry hemp. And though for ■ thousand years past bells have been consecrated by priests of the Romish church, in expectation that the sound of such blessed bells would drive away those storms, and ■ buildings from the stroke of lightning; and during so long

■ period it has not been found by experience ■■ places within the reach of such blessed sound ■■ safer than others where it is never heard ; but that on the contrary, the lightning seems to strike steeples of choice, and that at the very time the bells are ringing ; yet ■■■ they continue to bless the new bells and jangle the old ones whenever it thunders. One would think it ■■■ time to try ■■■ other trick ; and ■■■ is recommended, (notwithstanding what this able philosopher says,) by more than twelve years' experience, wherein, among the great number of houses furnished with iron rods in North America, not one so guarded has been materially hurt with lightning, several have been evidently preserved by their means ; while ■ number of houses, churches, barns, ships, &c. in different places, unprovided with rods, have been struck and greatly damaged, demolished ■■ burnt. Probably the vestries of ■■ English churches ■■ not well acquainted with these facts ; otherwise, since ■■ Protestants, they have no faith in the blessing of bells, they would be less excusable in not providing this other security for their respective churches, (more exposed than common buildings by their greater height,) and for the good people that may happen to be assembled in them during a tempest.

I have nothing new in the philosophical way to communicate to you, unless what follows may be such. When I was last year in Germany, I

met with a glass, being a tube about eight inches long, half an inch in diameter, with a hollow ball of near an inch diameter at one end, and one of an inch and a half at the other, hermetically sealed, and half filled with water. One end is held in the hand, and the other a little elevated above the level, a constant succession of large bubbles proceeds from the end in the hand to the other hand, and make an appearance that puzzled me much, till I found that the space not filled with water was also free from air; and either filled with a subtil invisible vapor continually rising from the water, and extremely rarefiable by the least heat at one end, and condensable again by the least cold at the other; it is the very fluid of fire itself, which parting from the hand, pervades the glass, and by its expansive force depresses the water till it pass between it and the glass, and escape to the other end, where it gets through the glass again into the air. I am rather inclined to the first opinion, but doubtful between the two. An ingenious artist here, *Mr. Nairne*, has made a number of them from mine, and improved them; for his are much more sensible than those I brought from Germany. I bored a very small hole through the wainscot in the seat of my window, through which a little cold air constantly entered, while the air in my room was kept warmer by fires daily made in it, being winter time. I placed several of these glasses with the elevated end against this hole,

and the bubbles from the other end, which in a warmer situation, continually passing day and night, to the no small surprise of philosophical spectators. Each bubble discharged is larger than that from which it proceeds, and yet that is not diminished; and by adding itself to the bubble at the other end, that bubble is not increased, which very paradoxical. When the balls at each end are made large, and the connecting tube very small and bent at right angles, that the balls, instead of being at the ends, may be brought on the side of the tube, and the tube is held that the balls are above it, the water will be depressed in that which is held in the hand, and rise in the other as a jet or fountain; when it is all in the other it begins to boil, as it were, by the vapor passing up through it; and the instant it begins to boil sudden coldness is felt in the ball held; a curious experiment first observed and shown by Mr. Nairne, similar to the old observation, I think of Aristotle, that the bottom of a boiling pot is not warm; and may help to explain that fact, if indeed it is a fact. When the water stands at equal height in both these balls, and all is at rest, if you wet one of the balls by the end of a feather dipped in spirit, though the spirit is of the same temperament to heat and cold the water in the glass, yet the cold occasioned by the evaporation of the spirit from the wetted ball will so condense the vapor

over the water contained in that ball, as that the water of the other ball will be pressed up into it, followed by a succession of bubbles, till the spirit is all dried away. I think the observations on these little instruments may suggest and be applied to various beneficial uses. It has been thought that water reduced to vapor by heat, was rarefied only 14,000 times, and on this principle our engines for raising water by fire are said to be constructed; but if the vapor so much rarefied from water is capable of being itself still farther rarefied to a boundless degree by the application of heat to the vessels, or parts of vessels, containing the vapor, (as at first it is applied to those containing the water,) perhaps a much greater power may be obtained with little additional expense. I think, too, that the power of easily moving water from one end to the other of a moveable beam, suspended in the middle by a small degree of heat, may be applied advantageously to some other mechanical purposes.

The magic square and circle, I have told, have occasioned a good deal of puzzling among the mathematicians here, but no one has desired me to show him my method of disposing the numbers. It seems they wish rather to investigate it themselves. When I have the pleasure of seeing you I will communicate it. With singular esteem and respect, I am, dear sir, your most obedient humble servant,

B. FRANKLIN.

ON THE FREE USE AIR.

TO MONS. DUBOURG.

London, July 28, 1768.

■ ■ * I GREATLY approve the epithet which you give, in your letter of the 8th of June, to the new method of treating the small-pox, which you call the *tonic* ■ bracing method; I will take occasion, from it, to mention ■ practice to which I have accustomed myself. You know the cold bath has long been in vogue here ■ a tonic; but the shock of the cold water has always appeared to me, generally speaking, ■ too violent, and I have found it much ■ agreeable to my constitution to bathe in another element, I mean cold air. With this view I rise almost every morning, and sit in my chamber without any clothes whatever, half an hour or an hour, according to the season, either reading ■ writing. This practice is not in the least painful, but, on the contrary, agreeable; and if I return to bed afterwards, before I dress myself, ■ sometimes happens, I make ■ supplement to my night's rest of ■ or two hours of the most pleasing sleep that ■ be imagined. I find no ill consequences whatever resulting from it; and that ■ least it does not injure my health, if it does not in fact contribute much to its preservation. I shall therefore call ■ ■ the future a *bracing* ■ *tonic* bath. ■ * *

B. FRANKLIN.

The Philosophical Survey of Ireland ■ ■ ■ remarkable ■ ■ ■ :—"Smith mentions ■ Dr. Lyne, of Cork, who for the ■ ■ ■ fifty years of his life never glazed ■ window in ■ house, four of which ■ had ■ ■ ■ bed-chamber, two ■ each side his bed. It is remarkable, that during all that time, nobody ■ ■ ■ in the house, ■ he himself was carried off by the small-pox at ■ ■ ■ of 85. After the windows ■ ■ ■ glazed by his son, death became a frequent visitor."

■ ■ ■ VENTILATION, &c.

Written by Mr. Small, the Surgeon, but containing Dr. Franklin's Observations on the subject.

I ■ ■ ■ not know that ■ ■ ■ have in any author particular and separate directions concerning the ventilating of hospitals, crowded rooms, ■ ■ ■ dwelling-houses ; ■ ■ ■ the making of proper drains for carrying off stagnant or putrid water. The want of such general information ■ ■ ■ these subjects, has induced me to endeavor to recollect all I ■ ■ ■ of the many instructive conversations I have had upon these matters, with that judicious and most accurate observer of nature, Dr. Benjamin Franklin. I do this in hopes that either the Doctor himself ■ ■ ■ some other person well qualified for the task, may follow the example set in ■ ■ ■ masterly ■ ■ ■ manner by Sir John Pringle, Bart. when speaking on the preservation of the health of seamen.

It has long been observed, that if ■ number of persons ■ ■ ■ shut up in ■ small room, of which the internal air ■ ■ ■ ■ ■ ■ ■ or no communication with

the external, the respiration of those who are ■■ confined renders by degrees the air of that room effete, and unfit for the support of life.

Dr. Franklin was, if I mistake not, the first who observed that respiration communicated to the air a quality resembling the mephitic; such ■■ the *Grotto del Cane* near Naples. The air impressed with this quality rises only to ■ certain height, beyond which it gradually loses it. The amendment begins in the upper part, and descends gradually until the whole becomes capable of ■■■■ taining life. The Doctor confirmed this by the following experiment. He breathed gently through a tube into a deep glass mug, so as to impregnate all the air in the mug with this quality. He then put a lighted *bougie* into the mug; and upon touching the air therein the flame was instantly extinguished; by frequently repeating this operation, the *bougie* gradually preserved its light longer in the mug, ■■ as in ■ short time to retain it to the bottom of it; the air having totally lost the bad quality it had contracted from the breath blown into it.

At the ■■■■ time that the lower part of the air is thus affected, ■■ acrid noxious quality may be communicated to its upper part in the room, occasioned by the volatile putrescent effluvia of the persons enclosed therein. "It is surprising," says Sir John Pringle; in his observations on the Diseases of the Army, fourth edit. p. 109, "in how

few days the air will be corrupted in close and crowded wards; and what makes it hard to remedy the evil, is the difficulty of convincing either [redacted] or the sick themselves, of the necessity of opening the windows and doors at any time for a supply of fresh air."

It may be inferred from the above account of mephitic air, that such air can be but little altered by a ventilator in the ceiling of a room; and Dr. Franklin justly concluded, that in crowded rooms, and especially in bed-rooms in dwelling-houses, a current of air should be kept up in the lower part of the rooms, to carry off what is thus affected. He approved of the use of chimnies for this purpose, especially when the current is quickened by a fire. Even when there is not any fire in the chimney, a current of air is constantly kept up in it, by its ascending or descending in the flue, as the weight of the internal or external air preponderates. This creates a kind of tide in the flue, conducing much to the healthiness of air in rooms; and hence we may see the injudiciousness of having chimney boards which fit closely, and thereby prevent a salutary circulation in the air. Hence also in [redacted] weather we may account for liquors [redacted] other things kept in a chimney being cooled, and more so if [redacted] [redacted] used to create [redacted] evaporation around them.

Every person has an atmosphere of his own, heated by the warmth of his body, which [redacted] be

dissipated only by motion in the circumambient air. Thus in ~~warm~~ weather wind cools the body, by carrying off the personal atmosphere, and promoting at the ~~same~~ time ~~a more~~ free evaporation of the effluvia arising from the body. This creates ~~a~~ great degree of coolness ~~on~~ the skin. The personal atmosphere ~~may~~ be but little affected by ~~a~~ ventilator in the ceiling of a room, unless the admission of external air is so directed ~~as~~ to act principally on the air surrounding those in the ~~room~~. Dr. Franklin, when consulted ~~on~~ ventilating the House of Commons, represented that the personal atmosphere surrounding the members might be carried off by making outlets in the perpendicular parts of the seats, through which the air might be drawn off by ventilators, so placed, as to accomplish this without admitting any by the same channels. It will appear from what has been said, that windows placed high in the walls of churches ~~or~~ rooms intended for large assemblies, can contribute but little towards correcting the mephitic quality of the lower part of the air, ~~as~~ towards carrying off the personal atmospheres.

The experiments made for ventilating crowded rooms, by that most beneficent of men, the Rev. Dr. Stephen Hales, bring evident proof how much the upper part of the air in such places is vitiated by the volatile putrescent effluvia arising from ~~the~~ persons present in such rooms. ~~It is~~ ~~the~~ same

time showed an easy and effectual way to carry off such vitiated air. His ventilators were, however, attended with the inconveniency of occasioning smoky chimnies, by drawing off so much air, that there was not a sufficiency left to keep a current strong enough to carry the smoke up the chimney, unless a door or window was left open. The circulating ventilators in windows were intended for refreshing the air in rooms, without affecting the current of air up the chimney, but they did not affect the mephitic air, nor the higher air near the ceiling of lofty rooms, which is most vitiated with putrescent particles; and they were besides often out of repair.

Instead of either of these, Dr. Franklin proposed that openings should be made close to the ceilings of rooms communicating with a flue, which should ascend in the wall close to the flues of the chimnies, and where it can be done conveniently, close to the flue of the kitchen chimney; because the fire burning pretty constantly there, would keep the sides of that flue ~~warmer~~ than those of the other chimnies; whereby a quicker current of air would be kept up in the ventilating flue. Such a flue might be carried from the vaults or under ground offices. This would render them drier, without altering their temperature much to heat or cold. These ventilating flues would ~~be a~~ constant discharge of the volatile putrescent *effluvia* without interfering with the current of

air up the chimnies; while the current towards the chimney would carry off the *mephitic* air below. These ventilating flues would be peculiarly beneficial in bed-rooms of which the ceilings are low.

Dr. Franklin mentioned ■■ instance of ■ number of Germans, who ■■ their arrival in Pennsylvania were obliged to live in ■ large barn; there being at that time no other place of residence fit for them. Several small windows were made on both sides of the barn under the eaves. These windows were kept constantly open, even during ■ severe frost in the winter; and this without any detriment to the health of the Germans. Prejudice, said he, has raised so great a dread against cold air in England, that such openings would make every person shudder at the thought of being exposed to so great a degree of cold: and therefore I did not dare to recommend a practice, the good effects of which I had known. The dormitory for the youths of Westminster School is a similar instance; for the glass put in their high lofty windows is soon broken, but seldom repaired; yet without prejudice to the health of the youths.

There is ■ channel by which much of the vitiated air escapes, and is but little attended to. Whoever looks at the ceilings of rooms in old houses, will ■■ discover the traces of the rafters, by ■ difference in color, in parts of the ceiling, and deposits in it part of its contents, which discolours the intervals between the joists. In the British Museum

there is ■ remarkable instance of the inconvenience of the want of this outlet. The ceiling of ■ of the rooms in that house is covered with a picture, or painted cloth. The room continues warm with little fire ; but the air soon affects the respiration of valetudinarians, as was often remarked by that accurate observer, Dr. G. Knight, late principal librarian.

An attentive observer will soon be convinced, that there is ■ current of warm air which ascends in the room from the chimney, while a fire burns. Dr. Franklin showed that this was the case, by the following experiment. He suspended by ■ thread, ■ piece of pasteboard cut in a spiral form. The thread was fastened to the chimney-piece, ■ that the pasteboard drawn out in ■ spiral form, ■ near to the edge of the chimney. The constant current of warm air, heated by the fire, gave ■ continued circular motion to the pasteboard. This warm air ascending to the ceiling, there spread, and kept ■ constant motion in the upper part of the air. The ■ air thus ascending, coming into contact with the cool walls, and being thereby condensed, becomes heavier, and so falls along the sides of the walls. Also the glass in windows being exposed to the temperature of the external air, in cold weather, becomes colder than any other part of the room ; therefore more sensibly descends, ■ may be ■ by approaching a lighted *bougie* to ■ window. The flame is then

carried downwards by the air; ■ if the flame is extinguished, the smoke will ■ clearly shew this truth, by descending along the window till it meets the air of ■ equal temperature. This will be the case however tight the window; and the ■ so, the brighter and stronger the fire is, and the colder the external air; the circulation of the air being thereby quickened. This accounts for the familiar caution of avoiding to sit in ■ near ■ window. This circulation of the air is yet more evidently proved by the following instance: When there is ■ bright strong fire in ■ close room, open the door and present immediately a lighted candle to the upper part of the door-way, the flame will bend outward; though ■ air in the higher part rushes out, lower the candle gradually, and the strength of the current outward will lessen by degrees, ■ the candle is lowered, till it ■ to ■ space in which the flame shall rise upright: continue to lower the candle gradually, and then the current of cold air inward will gradually increase and ■ strongly bend the flame of the candle inward. This will be the ■ even in frosty and windy weather. May it not be inferred from this circumstance of so strong ■ current of air outwards in the upper part of the door-way, that ■ opening over or in the upper part of the door in the ward of ■ hospital might be of advantage, especially if there is no ventilating flue in the ceiling? By such means a circulation of the air

in the upper part of the ward could be constantly kept up ; and thereby a vent would be given to the volatile putrescent particles. This vent might remain open at all times, without any prejudice to the patients.

What is said on this subject by Dr. John Armstrong, ■ gentleman ■ less remarkable for his benevolence than for his judgment and fine taste, may be properly mentioned here. " A constant circulation of fresh air is ■ necessary, ■ important in fevers, and in all feverish disorders, that it ought to be particularly considered in the construction of houses. It would be well, if in all the apartments of every house, but especially in bed-chambers, the upper sashes of every window ■ contrived to let down ; for by this means the admission of fresh air would at all times be perfectly safe ; except during a raw, damp, foggy night ; ■ the body, even when under such ■ sweat ■ could not without danger be interrupted, may receive all the refreshing, restorative, and invigorating influence of the air, without being exposed to ■ stream of it ; meantime, where this is wanting, the best method to supply it, is by drawing the bed-curtains close, now and then, for a few minutes at a time, while ■ free passage is made to the foul air, by opening the doors and windows." *Medical Essays, page 22.*

The noxious vapors that fill ■ sick room ■ not only offensive, but dangerous to those who con-

tinue in it for any time. If dangerous to people then in health, how detrimental must they be to ■■ oppressed and struggling under ■■ enfeebling disease ! It is ■ common thing in a campaign to distribute the sick soldiers, ill of malignant fevers, in open barns, where the putrid volatile poison is in ■ short time dissipated.

There is, in ■ volume of the *Mémoires et Observations recueillies par la Société Economique de Berne*, ■ letter concerning the health of the inhabitants of the *Pays de Vaud* ; part of which I beg to present here as bearing a near analogy to this subject. The letter is written by a most accurate and judicious clergyman. “ One fact,” says he, “ deserves to be noticed. Taking one year with another, a greater proportional number always die in towns than in villages. But whence comes it, that when epidemic diseases prevail, the mortality takes quite ■ different road ; that is, it is much more considerable in villages than in towns ? I have taken great pains to find out the cause of this phenomenon, and ■ apt to impute the difference to the difference of habitations. The poor in cities and great towns dwell in houses originally not intended for them ; but which being so old and past repairing, ■ to be ■ longer tenable by persons at their ease, fall to the lot of the lower class of people. In these houses the rooms are spacious, cold as ice, where the air plays freely around, with doors and windows that do not half shut. The

inhabitants of these shattered houses are pitied ; and yet the very circumstance of their being out of repair, is what contributes to the health of those who live in them, and facilitates their cure when diseases reign."

The more I see of hospitals, the more I am convinced of the great want of instructions on duly ventilating them. It is surprising to see what little attention has been paid in some hospitals about London to this article, which have been built since the importance of ventilation has been well known. In all of them there is too great a distance between the windows and the ceilings, where the volatile putrescent particles may remain till they become very acrid. With pleasure I here do justice to the judgment and precaution of Messrs. Adam, in the manner of ventilating the great room built by them for the meeting of the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, &c. by leaving spaces between the panes of glass in the sky-lights, the panes overlaying each other. These spaces being concealed from the eye, do not alarm those fearful of cold air, and keep the room constantly sweet.

The hospitals the most judiciously built in this respect, which I have seen, are those in Philadelphia and in Lyons. In the hospital in Philadelphia the wards are two stories high, with two rows of windows in each, the upper row being kept generally open : and the windows in the hospital

at Lyons ■■■ very lofty ; so that the upper sashes may be for the most part kept open. Both hospitals ■■■ by this means perfectly sweet ; ■■ sweet, that a military gentleman, who went with me into the hospital at Lyons, and was unaccustomed to sick rooms, declared, that the air in the ward ■■■ not disagreeable to him, though it contained ■■ considerable number of sick. Indeed they were kept very clean. I am sorry to say this is not the ■■■ in any one of our hospitals.

The naval hospital at Gibraltar is a square, which in ■ hot climate is itself a great imperfection, as the air within the square must in summer especially be greatly heated ; and, ■ if they had studied to keep the cool air out of the wards, the windows open into the square only : whereas, if the west side had been left open, the wards might have received the cool breezes from the bay. The sick are lodged in long galleries not sufficiently divided to have the patients in separate wards, and no openings to carry off the putrid air lodged among the rafters which support the roof.

On my arrival in the island of Minorca, as surgeon to the royal artillery there, I ■■■ surprised at the neglect of my predecessors in that office, in regard to ventilating the hospital. There were no openings in the wards in which the sick lay, but the windows and doors, which ■■■ necessarily shut every night, to prevent the irregularities soldiers might be guilty of. Where chimnies had

been, they were built up to prevent the expense of fires : and thus during the night, the sick lay in an absolutely confined air. The consequence was, that when the ~~ward~~ opened the wards in the morning, she ~~was~~ obliged to withdraw instantly ; for the highly-infected air often brought ~~her~~ vomiting. In this ~~case~~ I applied to ~~the~~ most worthy and ingenious chief engineer, the late Col. Mackellar, for leave to ~~make~~ such ~~alterations~~ as might create ~~a~~ circulation of air in all the wards. In this he readily concurred, and ordered the necessary alterations.

In each ward in which the flue of the chimney remained, an opening of about four or five inches square ~~was~~ made through the wall into the flue, as near the ceiling ~~as~~ possible. Round holes of about three inches diameter were cut low in each door, covered with ~~a~~ sliding flap to shut the holes occasionally : in ~~some~~ of the wards there ~~had~~ had been chimnies. In these, holes were cut through the wall close to the ceiling, which opened into a common passage : and when two such wards ~~were~~ contiguous, ~~a~~ hole ~~was~~ cut through the dividing wall ~~as~~ well as in the door of each ward. One of the wards in which there had not been ~~a~~ chimney, and which ~~was~~ arched with stones, ~~was~~ constantly so damp that no ~~one~~ ~~could~~ made of it. The walls and arch were covered with green moss. They ~~were~~ afterwards scraped to clear them of the moss which retained moisture, and then co-

vered with lime. This room became ■ dry, that though locked up for three months, during which I was confined with the gout, books and papers which had remained in it, were at the end of that time perfectly dry. The generally agreeable effects of this opening ■■ scarcely be conceived: the wards, and indeed the whole hospital being rendered perfectly sweet, greatly to the benefit of the sick, ■ well as to the pleasure of the attendants.

The barracks in the square of the castle St. Philip, in which are lodged the detachment of the regiment of artillery doing duty there, are dry, except that being built of stone, they collect moisture on every sudden change of the air from cold to warm. Each barrack opens into the square, and is divided into three apartments. The part next the door has the whole height, and in it their arms and necessities ■ kept. The inner part being about one-half, is divided into two floors. In the lower ■■ they cook, each barrack having a ■■ or family in it, some of whom sleep in it. The fire, and the free access between it and the door, keep up ■ due circulation here. In the upper room most of the men sleep under a stone arch, the room being little ■■ than six feet high in the centre, and therefore much lower in the sides. Under that arch from four to six or eight persons sleep, especially when there are children. This room is very stifling, there being little circu-

lation of air in it, especially in calm warm weather, such the nights generally there in summer. In order to create circulation of air in this upper room, openings were made into the flues of the chimnies of the lower room near the centre of the arch possible, the chimnies being in the corner of the rooms below. In general these openings drew very well, and gave great relief, especially to those who had weak diseased lungs. The proper remedy here would have been to have had small flues made the flues of the chimnies below, could it have been done. This measure is too much neglected in all barracks.

Whoever may on any future occasion have the direction of military hospitals, is already furnished with such judicious directions by my learned friends Sir John Pringle, Bart. and Dr. Donald Munro, that, were I to say any thing that subject, I could only copy whole pages from them. Sir John Pringle's speech giving the gold medal of the Royal Society to Captain Cook, in which he took occasion to point out the of preserving the health of seamen, is equally deserving of commendation.

The healthiness of buildings does not perhaps depend more the due ventilation of the rooms, than it does on the dryness of the situation, and of the foundation. John Pringle, in the part of his "*Observations on the Diseases of the*

Army," has given several instances of this truth. But as every person who regards his own life and health, or the lives and health of others, should be well acquainted with that work, I shall refer to the original. I have often lamented that the first part of that book, describing the natural consequences of the situation of places and their effects on health, has not been published separately; because it might thereby become of general use to every person who leads a country life, or resorts thither frequently to enjoy quiet; for, being part of a book professedly treating of diseases, few think of consulting it, except those whose business it is to cure diseases.

However inviting the situation may be, and whatever may be the quality of the ground on which houses are built, generally drains should be made all round the house deeper than the foundation of the building, to carry off the superfluous moisture: even the moisture that may be lodged under ground; for it is essentially necessary that the lower part of the house be kept continually dry.

The advantages of drains or sewers are remarkably felt in London, which before the fire of London, was frequently afflicted with contagious malignant fevers. Before that period all the waste water and filth remained above ground; and the people, as Erasmus complained, were very inattentive to keeping their houses clean. The wooden

houses projected so much over the then very streets, that the air became almost stagnant, and must have been loaded with putrid effluvia, there being very little circulation current in the air thus confined to carry off these effluvia.

Before the city rebuilt, that ingenious architect Sir Christopher Wren, planned and built the common sewers, as they continue to this day: and they are a lasting monument of his judgment and attention to the health and welfare of its inhabitants. These, together with the removal of signs and sign-posts, new paving and cleansing the streets, have been attended with such happy effects, that London and Westminster now ranked among the most healthy spots in the island, for grown persons whose lungs bear the cloud of smoke which generally hovers over them: and thus the apparent great calamity of a fire became singular blessing to the city of London.

The quantity of water brought into the city by the New River and other water-works, which daily to waste, helps to cleanse and keep the common sweet, and thereby contributes much to the healthiness of the city. Though foreign to the subject, it may be observed, that till the Restoration there were few gardens about London for supplying kitchen herbs. These became more numerous after that period, and still so after the Revolution; a number of Dutch gardeners coming to England that time. The

quantity of vegetables supplied by these gardens contribute greatly to the healthiness of the citizens.

Rome would not perhaps have become mistress of ■ extraordinary an empire, situated ■ that city is ■ marshy grounds, had not the common sewers, which still attract the admiration of all travellers, been so early and judiciously built by Tarquinius Priscus, who may for that ■ be called ■ second founder of Rome. The ancient Romans were particularly attentive to the draining and cultivating of these marshes, and they soon became the granary of ancient Rome : but being neglected during the invasions of the barbarous nations, they ■ now the reproach and just chastisement of the supine indolence and inactivity of the modern Romans.

Gravel, which is generally reckoned ■ dry and healthy foundation to build upon, is found by experience not to deserve that character at all times, unless deep drains are made to carry off the water of heavy rains long continued : for by such rains the gravel may be so charged with water, especially in flat grounds, that the lower parts of the houses erected ■ such soils may prove damp. In all the flat grounds along the Thames the cellars ■ often filled with water after heavy rains ; and if the water continues there stagnant, ■ the animal ■ vegetable substances mixed with it begin to putrify, aches, agues, and putrid fevers ■ the natural

consequences. Though Kensington palace stands high, and on a declivity, yet when King George the Second continued there till late in October, the lower parts of the house became damp, occasioned by the want of drains; and the servants became aguish. Stones which absorb and retain water, the *Cantoon* stone in *Minorca* do, in this respect similar to gravel. There is a remarkable instance of this in a magazine cut out of a solid rock of *Cantoon* stone in Georgetown, in *Minorca*. The magazine was covered with a well-lined arch and roof. Yet when the winter rains began to fall in November, the magazine filled with water, as high as it was cut out of the rock. When drains were made to carry off the water, the magazine then became and continued to be sufficiently dry.

Might not low grounds on the banks of rivers, similar to those in Flanders, and justly and judiciously complained of by Sir John Pringle, be rendered more healthy, by drains dug as deep as low-water mark in the adjacent rivers? Sluices might be made in the banks of the river, to prevent the tides and floods from entering into the drains. It would be advisable to cover the drains, to prevent the noxious vapors arising from putrid animal or vegetable substances, which generally rot in open ditches. The earth thrown out of the drains might serve to cover them, when the channels for carrying off the water are properly constructed. By

these ~~no~~ no surface would be lost for the growth of vegetables.

Willows, alders, and such trees ~~delight in~~ delight in moist or wet soil, may be planted ~~the~~ the banks of ditches, if any such are permitted to remain open, that their leaves may correct the putrid vapors arising from the stagnant water in the ditches. I fear, however, that in the autumn, when the effects of putrid vapors ~~are~~ most severely felt, the leaves of these trees, being then hardened by age, may in a great measure lose the power of correcting the putrid vapors. The late summer shoots may afford aid till the equinoxial rains clear the ditches of all filth. That trees have not the power of proving an effectual remedy against these putrid exhalations, the frequency of agues in the low countries, in every such season, is a sufficient proof. ~~If~~ such trees grow on the banks of ditches, they should be kept in ~~a~~ pollard state, to admit of ~~a~~ free circulation of air.

An observation of Dr. Franklin's deserves ~~a~~ place here, especially ~~it~~ it is not generally attended to. The opinion is indeed against it. The banks of rivers which have ~~a~~ quick motion, and ~~are~~ ~~are~~ a clear sandy bottom, ~~are~~ very agreeable ~~are~~ healthy situations: but the sides of rivers which have oozy bottoms, or marshy banks, or which ~~are~~ in the neighborhood of extensive marshes, ~~are~~ to be avoided. When necessity or

any peculiar advantage obliges people to build ■■■ such bad neighbors, the south side, says the Doctor, is the most eligible; because the ■■■ southerly winds, which promote a tendency to putrefaction, and are the most frequent, blow the noxious vapors from the buildings; whereas the northerly winds, which blow but seldom compared with the former, and which generally blow strongly, check putrefaction, and speedily carry off noxious vapors.

It is now well known that the stench arising from stationary privies, may be prevented by a cheap and easy method. The excrements may be received in tubs, so closely connected with the seat, that no air can pass. The lower ends of the tub should be sunk below the surface of water contained in proper cisterns. The excrements ■■■ ■■■ dissolved in water, and so carried off, *every time the privy is washed, which should be as often as it is used.*

In towns the stench of the common sewers is sometimes very offensive. This may be prevented by interrupting the current of air through them by ■■■ of stink-traps; the construction and utility of which, ■■■ of late years well known in London. As sand or other filth may be apt to lodge in the deepened place, it should be so contrived, ■■■ to be easily ■■■ at, in order to clear away every obstruction.

Let me add here to the method of correcting bad

water, proposed by Dr. Munro, in his *Essay on the Means of preserving the Health of Soldiers*, the following easy method of keeping water clear and sweet, ascertained by several experiments, made some years ago by the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, &c. in London. The method is to mix clay with the water in such quantities, that when the clay is dissolved, the hand immersed under the surface of the water shall not be ■■■■. The clay subsiding, carries down with it all the impurities, and, in a manner burying them, prevents their communicating any bad taste or smell to the water, which thereby continues long clear and sweet. Clay may probably correct stagnant water, and thereby preserve it clear and good in dry seasons, and may thus become very useful, where there is no running water. If any bad taste or smell remains after the use of the clay, it may be carried off by one of the ventilators ■■■■ recommended for that purpose by the Rev. Dr. Hales. The clear water may be drawn off by ■ siphon or ■ cock, placed high enough not to touch the clay.

A. S.

ON RAIN.

Extract of ■ Letter to Dr. Percival, 1771.

“On my return to London I found your favor of the 16th May, (1771.) I wish I could, as you desire, give you ■ better explanation of the pheno-

menon in question, since you seem not quite satisfied with your own; but I think we want more and a greater variety of experiments in different circumstances, to enable us to form a thoroughly satisfactory hypothesis. Not that I make the least doubt of the facts already related, nor I know both Lord Charles Cavendish and Dr. Heberden to be very accurate experimenters: but I wish to know the event of the trials proposed in your six queries; and also, whether in the same place where the lower vessel receives nearly twice the quantity of water that is received by the upper, a third vessel placed at half the height will receive a quantity proportionable. I will, however, endeavor to explain to you what occurred to me, when I first heard of the fact.

I suppose it will be generally allowed, on a little consideration of the subject, that scarce any drop of water was, when it began to fall from the clouds, of a magnitude equal to that it has acquired when it arrives at the earth; the same of the several pieces of hail; because they are often so large and weighty, that we cannot conceive a possibility of their being suspended in the air, and remaining at rest there for any time, how small soever; nor do we conceive any means of forming them a large, before they set out to fall. It seems then, that each beginning drop, and particle of hail, receives continual addition in its progress downwards. This may be several ways: by the

union of numbers in their course, ■ that what ■ at first only a descending mist, becomes ■ shower; or by each particle in its descent through air that contains a great quantity of dissolved water, striking against, attaching to itself, and carrying down with it, such particles of that dissolved water ■ happen to be in its way; ■ attracting to itself such ■ do not lie directly in its course, by its different state with regard either to common or electric fire; or by all these ■ united.

In the first place, by the uniting of numbers, larger drops might be made, but the quantity falling in the same space would be the ■ at all heights; unless, as you mention, the whole should be contracted in falling, the lines described by all the drops converging, so that what set out to fall from ■ cloud of many thousand acres, should reach the earth in perhaps a third of that extent, of which I somewhat doubt. In the other ■ we have two experiments.

1. A dry glass bottle, ■ with very cold water, in a warm day, will presently collect from the seemingly dry air that surrounds it, ■ quantity of water that shall cover its surface and ■ down its sides; which perhaps is done by the power where-with the cold water attracts the fluid common fire, that had been united with the dissolved water in the air, and drawing that fire through the glass into itself, leaves the water ■ the outside.

2. An electrified body left in a room for some time, will be more covered with dust than other bodies in the room not electrified; which dust seems to be attracted from the circumambient air.

Now all know that rain, even in our hottest days, falls from a very cold region. Its falling sometimes in the form of ice shows this clearly; and perhaps even the rain is snow or ice when it first moves downwards, though thawed in falling: and all know that the drops of rain are often electrified. But those causes of addition to each drop of water, or piece of hail, one would think could not long continue to produce the same effect; since the air through which the drops must fall, must be stripped of its previously dissolved water, so as to be no longer capable of augmenting them. Indeed very heavy showers of either are never of long continuance, but moderate rains often continue so long as to puzzle this hypothesis: that upon the whole I think, as I intimated before, that we are yet hardly ripe for making

REPORT ON LIGHTNING CONDUCTORS POWDER MAGAZINES AT PURFLEET.

TO THE PRESIDENT AND COUNCIL OF THE ROYAL
SOCIETY.

(Drawn up by B. Franklin, Aug. 21, 1772.)

GENTLEMEN,

The Society being consulted by the Board of

Ordinance, on the propriety of fixing conductors for securing the Powder Magazines at Purfleet from lightning, and, having thereupon done the honor of appointing us a committee to consider the same and report our opinion, we have accordingly visited those buildings, and examined with care and attention their situation, construction, and circumstances, which we find follows:—

They are five in number, each about 150 feet long, about 52 feet wide, built of brick, arched under the roof, which in one of them is slated with a coping of lead 22 inches wide on the ridge, from end to end; and the others, we were informed, are soon to be covered in the same manner. They stand parallel to each other, at about 57 feet distance, and are founded on a chalk rock about 100 feet from the river, which rises, in high tides, within a few inches of the level of the ground, its brackish water also soaking through to the wells that were dug under the buildings.

The barrels of powder, when the magazines are full, lie piled on each other up to the spring of the arches; and there are four copper hoops on each barrel, which, with a number of perpendicular iron bars (that come down through the arches to support a long grooved piece of timber, wherein the crane is usually moved and guided to any part where it is wanted), formed broken conductors, within the building, the more dangerous from their being incomplete; as the explosion from hoop to

hoop in the passage of lightning drawn down through the bars among the barrels, might easily happen to fire the powder contained in them: but the workmen were removing all those iron bars (by the advice of some members of the society who had been previously consulted); ■■■ very much approve of.

On ■■ elevated ground, nearly equal in height with the tops of the magazines, and 150 yards from them, is the house wherein the board usually meet: it is ■ lofty building, with ■ pointed hip roof, the copings of lead down to the gutters; whence leaden pipes descend at each end of the building, into the water of two wells 40 feet deep, for the purpose of conveying water forced up by engines to a cistern in the roof.

There is also ■ proof-house adjoining to the end of ■■ of the magazines; and a clock-house at the distance of ■ feet from them, which has ■ weather-cock on an iron spindle, and probably some incomplete conductors within, such ■ the wire usually extending up from ■ clock to its hammer, the clock, pendulum, rod, &c.

The blowing-up of a magazine of gunpowder by lightning within a few years past at Brescia in Italy, which demolished a considerable part of the town with the loss of many lives, does in our opinion strongly urge the propriety of guarding such magazines from that kind of danger. And since it is ■■■ well known from many observations, that

metals have the property of conducting, and a method has been discovered of using that property for the security of buildings, by [REDACTED] disposing and fixing iron rods, [REDACTED] to receive and convey safely away such lightning as might otherwise have damaged them, which method has been practised near 20 years in many places, and attended with success in all the instances that have [REDACTED] to our knowledge, we cannot therefore but think it advisable to provide conductors of that kind for the magazines in question.

In common cases it has been judged sufficient, if the lower part of the conductor were sunk three [REDACTED] four feet into the ground till it came to moist earth ; but this being a case of the greatest importance, we are of opinion that greater precaution should be taken. Therefore we would advise, that at each end of each magazine a well should be dug in or through the chalk, so deep as to have in it at least 4 feet of standing water. From the bottom of this water should rise [REDACTED] piece of leaden pipe to or near the surface of the ground, where it should be strongly joined to the end of an upright iron bar, an inch and a half in diameter, fastened to the wall by leaden straps, and extending ten feet above the ridge of the building, tapering from the ridge upwards to a sharp point ; the upper [REDACTED] inches to be copper, the iron to be painted.

We mention lead for the under-ground part of the conductor, as less liable to rust in water and

moist places, in the form of a pipe, giving greater stiffness for the substance; and iron for the part above ground, as stronger and less likely to be cut away. The pieces of which the bar may be composed should be screwed strongly into each other by a close joint, with a thin plate of lead between the shoulders, to make the joining or continuation of metal perfect. Each rod, in passing above the ridge, should be strongly and closely connected by iron or lead, both, with the leaden coping of the roof, whereby a communication of metal will be made between the two bars of each building, for a more free and easy conducting of the lightning into the earth.

We also advise, in consideration of the great length of the buildings, that two wells of the depth with the others, should be dug within 12 feet of the doors of the two outside magazines; that is to say, one of them on the north side of the north building, the other on the south side of the south building; from the bottoms of which wells similar conductors should be carried up to the eaves, there joining well with a plate of lead extending on the roof up to the leaden coping of the ridge, the said plate of lead being of equal substance with that of the coping.

We are further of opinion, that it will be right to form a communication of lead from the top of the chimney of the proof-house to the lead on its ridge, and thence to the lead on the ridge of the corridor,

and thence to the iron conductor of the adjacent end of the magazine ; and also to fix a conductor from the bottom of the weather-cock spindle of the clock-house down on the outside of that building into the moist earth.

As to the board-house, we think it already well furnished with conductors by the several leaden communications above mentioned, from the point of the roof down into the water, and that by its height and proximity it may be a security to the buildings below it : we therefore propose no other conductor for this building, and only advise erecting a pointed rod at the summit, similar to those before described, and communicating with those conductors.

To these directions we would add a caution, that in all future alterations or repairs of the buildings, special care be taken that the metal-line communications are not cut off or removed.

It remains that we express our acknowledgments to Sir Charles Frederick, surveyor-general, of the ordnance, for the obliging attention with which he entertained and accommodated us on the day of our inquiry. We have with very great respect, are, gentlemen, your most obedient humble servants,

(Signed)

H. CAVENDISH,
WILLIAM WATSON,
B. FRANKLIN,
J. ROBERTSON.

Aug. 21, 1772.

EXPERIMENTS, OBSERVATIONS, AND FACTS RELATIVE ■■■ UTILITY OF LONG POINTED RODS, FOR SECURING BUILDINGS FROM DAMAGE BY STROKES OF LIGHTNING.¹

Aug. 27, 1772.

EXPERIMENT 1.

THE prime conductor of ■■ electric machine, A. B.² being supported about $10\frac{1}{2}$ inches above the table by a wax-stand, and under it erected ■ pointed wire $7\frac{1}{2}$ inches high, and $\frac{1}{5}$ of ■■ inch thick, tapering to ■ sharp point, and communicating with the table: when the point (being uppermost) is covered by the end of a finger, the conductor may be full charged, and the electrometer c^3 will rise to the height indicating a full charge: but the moment the point is uncovered, the ball of the electrometer drops, showing the prime conductor ■ be instantly discharged and nearly emptied of its electricity. Turn the wire, its blunt end upwards, (which represents ■■ unpointed bar,) and ■■ such effect follows, the electrometer remaining at its usual height when the prime conductor ■ charged.

Observation.—What quantity of lightning ■ high pointed rod well communicating with the earth may be expected to discharge from the clouds

¹ Read ■■ committee appointed to consider ■■ erecting conductors to secure the magazines ■■ Purfleet. Aug. 27, 1772.

² See PLATE 2.

³ Mr. Henley's.

silently in a short time, is yet unknown; but I have reason, from a particular fact, to think it may many times be very great. In Philadelphia I had such a rod fixed to the top of my chimney, and extending about nine feet above it. From the foot of this rod, a wire (the thickness of a goose-quill) came through a covered glass tube in the roof, and down through the well of the staircase; the lower end connected with the iron spear of a pump. On the staircase opposite to my chamber-door, the wire was divided; the ends separated about six inches, a little bell on each end; and between the bells a little brass ball suspended by a silk thread, to play between and strike the bells when clouds passed with electricity in them. After having frequently drawn sparks and charged bottles from the bell of the upper wire, I was one night awaked by loud cracks in the staircase. Starting up and opening the door, I perceived that the brass ball, instead of vibrating as usual between the bells, was repelled and kept at a distance from both; while the fire passed sometimes in very large quick cracks from bell to bell, and sometimes in a continued dense white stream, seemingly as large as my finger; whereby the whole staircase was enlightened as with sun-shine, so that one might see to pick a pin.* And from the apparent quantity thus dis-

* De Romas saw still greater quantities of lightning brought down by the wire of his kite. He saw many explosions

charged, I cannot but conceive that a number' of such conductors must considerably lessen that of any approaching cloud, before it [] so [] as to deliver its contents in a general stroke:—an effect not to be expected from bars unpointed, if the above experiment with the blunt end of the wire is deemed pertinent to the case.

EXPERIMENT II.

The pointed wire under the prime conductor continuing of the [] height, *pinch* it between the thumb and finger near the top, so as *just to conceal* the point; then turning the globe, the electrometer will rise and mark the full charge. Slip the fingers down so as to discover about half an inch of the wire, then another half inch, and then another; at every one of these motions, *discovering more and more* of the pointed wire: you will [] the elec-

from it, the noise of which greatly resembled that of thunder, and [] heard (from without) into the heart of the city, notwithstanding the various noises there. The fire [] [] the [] of the explosion had the shape of a spindle eight inches long and five lines in diameter. Yet from the time of the explosion to the end of the experiment, no lightning [] [] above, [] any thunder heard. At another time the streams of fire issuing from it [] observed to [] [] inch thick and ten feet long."—*See Dr. Priestley's History of Electricity*, pages 354—6. *first edition*.

* Twelve were proposed [] [] [] the magazines [] Purfleet.

trometer fall quick and proportionably, stopping when you stop. If you slip down the *whole distance* at once, the ball falls instantly down to the stem.

Observation.—From this experiment it seems that a greater effect in drawing off the lightning from the clouds may be expected from *long* pointed rods, than from *short* ones; and that from such rods show the greatest length, *above the building* they are fixed on.

EXPERIMENT III.

Instead of pinching the point between the thumb and finger, as in the last experiment, keep the thumb and finger each at *near an inch distance* from it, but at the *same height*, the point between them. In this situation, though the point is fairly exposed to the prime conductor, it has little or no effect; the electrometer rises to the height of a full charge. But the moment the fingers are *taken away*, the ball falls quick to the stem.

Observation.—To explain this, it is supposed, that one reason of the sudden effect produced by a long naked pointed wire is, that (by the repulsive power of the positive charge in the prime conductor) the natural quantity of electricity contained in the pointed wire is driven down into the earth, and the point of the wire made strongly *negative*; whence it attracts the electricity of the prime conductor more strongly than bodies in their natural

state would do ; the *small quantity of* matter in the point, not being able by its attractive force to retain its *natural quantity of the electric fluid*, against the force of that repulsion. But the finger and thumb being substantial and blunt bodies, though as near the prime conductor, hold up better their natural quantity against the force of that repulsion ; and so, continuing nearly in the natural state, they jointly operate the electric fluid in the point, opposing its descent, and *aiding the point* to retain it ; contrary to the repelling power of the prime conductor, which would drive it down. And this may also serve to explain the different powers of the point in the preceding experiment, on the slipping down the finger and thumb to different distances.

Hence is collected, that a pointed rod erected *between two tall chimnies*, and very little higher, (an instance of which I have seen) cannot have so good effect, as if it had been erected on of the chimnies, its whole length above it.

EXPERIMENT IV.

If, *instead* of a long pointed wire, a large solid body, (to represent a building without a point) be brought under and as the prime conductor, when charged ; the ball of the electrometer will fall a little ; and taking away the large body, will rise again.

Observation.—Its rising again shows that the

prime conductor lost little or none of its electric charge, ■ it had done through the point: the *falling* of the ball while the large body ■ under the conductor, therefore shows that a quantity of its atmosphere was drawn from the end where the electrometer is placed to the part immediately over the large body, and there accumulated *ready* to strike into it with its whole undiminished force, ■ ■ within the striking distance; and, ■ the prime conductor moveable like ■ *cloud*, it would approach the body by attraction till within that distance. The swift motion of clouds, as driven by the winds, probably prevents this happening ■ often as otherwise it might do; for, though parts of the cloud may stoop towards a building ■ they pass, in consequence of such attraction, yet they ■ carried forward beyond the striking distance before they could by their descending ■ within it.

EXPERIMENT V.

Attach ■ small light *lock of cotton* to the under side of the prime conductor, so that it may hang down towards the pointed wire mentioned in the first experiment. Cover the point with your finger, and the globe being turned, the cotton will extend itself, stretching down towards the finger ■ at *a*; but on *uncovering* the point, it instantly flies up to the prime conductor, as at *b*, and continues there as long as the point is uncovered. The moment

you cover it again, the cotton flies down again, extending itself towards the finger; and the same happens in degree, if (instead of the finger) you use, uncovered, the *blunt* end of the wire uppermost.

Observation.—To explain this, it is supposed that the cotton, by its connection with the prime conductor, receives from it a quantity of its electricity; which occasions its being attracted by the *finger* that remains still in nearly its natural state. But when ■ *point* is opposed to the cotton, its electricity is thereby taken from it, faster than it ■ at ■ distance be supplied with ■ fresh quantity from the conductor. Therefore being reduced *nearer* to the natural state, it is attracted *up* to the electrified prime conductor, *rather than down*, ■ before, to the finger.

Supposing farther, that the prime conductor ■ presents ■ cloud charged with the electric fluid; the cotton, ■ ragged fragment of cloud (of which the underside of great thunder-clouds ■ ■ to have many); the finger, a chimney or highest part of ■ building; we then may conceive that when such a cloud passes ■ ■ building, ■ one of its ragged underhanging fragments may be drawn down by the chimney or other high part of the edifice; creating thereby ■ ■ easy communication between it and the great cloud.—But ■ long pointed rod being represented to this fragment, may occasion

its receding, like the cotton, up to the great cloud ; and thereby *increase*, instead of *lessening* the distance, so ■ often to make it *greater* than the striking distance. Turning the *blunt end* of ■ wire uppermost, (which represents the unpointed bar) it appears that the same good effect is not from that to be expected. A long pointed rod, ■ is therefore imagined, may *prevent* some strokes ; as well ■ *conduct* others that fall upon it, when ■ great body of cloud comes on ■ heavily that the above repelling operation ■ fragments cannot take place.

EXPERIMENT VI.

Opposite the side of the prime conductor place *separately*, isolated by ■ stems, Mr. Canton's two boxes with pith balls suspended by fine linen threads. On each box lay ■ wire six inches long and $\frac{1}{2}$ of an inch thick, tapering to ■ sharp point ; but so laid, as that four inches of the *pointed* end of *one* wire, and ■ equal length of the *blunt* end of the *other*, may project beyond the ends of the boxes ; and both at 18 inches distance from the prime conductor. Then charging the prime conductor by ■ turn or two of the globe, the balls of each pair will separate ; those of the box whence the point projects most, *considerably* ; the others *less*. Touch the prime conductor, and those of the box with the *blunt* point will *collapse*, and join. Those connected with the *point* will at the ■

time approach each other, *till* within about an inch, and *there remain*.

Observation.—This seems ■ proof, that though the small sharpened part of the wire must have had a *less natural* quantity in it before the operation, than the thick blunt part; yet ■ greater quantity was *driven down from it* to the balls. Thence it is again inferred that the pointed rod is rendered *more negative*: and farther, that if ■ *stroke must fall* from the cloud over ■ building, furnished with such a rod, it is more likely to be drawn to that pointed rod, than to ■ blunt one; as being more strongly negative, and of course its attraction stronger. And it seems more eligible, that the lightning should fall on the point of the conductor (provided to convey it into the earth), than on any other part of the building, *thence* to proceed to such conductor. Which end is also ■ likely to be obtained by the length and loftiness of the rod; as protecting more extensively the building under it.

It has been objected, that erecting pointed rods upon *edifices*, is to *invite* and draw the lightning into *them*; and therefore dangerous. Were such rods to be erected on buildings, *without continuing the communication* quite down into the moist earth, this objection might then have weight; but when such complete conductors are made, the lightning is invited not into the building, but into the *earth*,

the situation it aims at, and which it always seizes every help to obtain, even from broken partial metalline conductors.

It has also been suggested, that from such electric experiments *nothing certain* ■■■ be concluded as to the great operations of nature; since it is often seen that experiments, which have succeeded in small, in large have failed. It is true that in mechanics this has sometimes happened. But when it is considered that we ■■■ first knowledge of the nature and operations of lightning to observations on such small experiments; and that ■■■ carefully comparing the most accurate accounts of former facts, and the exactest relations of those that have occurred since, the effects have surprisingly agreed with the theory; it is humbly conceived that in natural philosophy, in this branch of it at least, the suggestion has not so much weight; and that the farther ■■■ experiments now adduced in recommendation of *long* sharp-pointed rods, may have some claim to credit and consideration.

It has been urged too, that though points may have considerable effects ■■■ ■ *small* prime conductor at *small* distances, yet on *great* clouds, and ■■■ *great* distances, nothing is to be expected from them. To this it is answered, that in those *small* experiments it is evident the points act at ■■■ greater than the *striking* distance; ■■■ in the large way, their

service ■ *only expected* where there is such ■■■ of the cloud ■ *to endanger a stroke* ; and there, it cannot be doubted, the points must have ■■■ effect. And if the quantity discharged by ■ single pointed rod may be so considerable as I have shown it, the quantity discharged by ■ number, will be proportionably greater.

■■■ this part of the theory does not depend alone ■■ *small experiments*. Since the practice of erecting pointed rods in America, (now near ■■ years') five of them have been struck by lightning ; viz. Mr. Raven's and Mr. Maine's in South Carolina ; Mr. Tucker's in Virginia ; Mr. West's and Mr. Moulder's in Philadelphia. Possibly there may have been ■■■ that have not come to my knowledge. But in every ■■■ of these, the lightning did *not* fall upon the *body of the house*, but precisely on the several *points* of the rods ; and, though the conductors were sometimes *not sufficiently large and complete*, was conveyed into the earth, without any material damage to the buildings. Facts then *in great*, ■■ far ■■ we have them authenticated, justify the opinion that is drawn from the experiments *in small*, ■■ above related.

■ has also been objected, that unless we knew ■■ quantity that might *possibly* be discharged at ■■ stroke from the clouds, we cannot be ■■ we

have provided *sufficient* conductors ; and therefore cannot depend on their conveying away *all* that may fall on their points. Indeed we have nothing to form a judgment by in this case but past facts ; and we know of no instance where ■ *complete* conductor to the moist earth *has* been insufficient, if half ■ inch diameter. It is probable that many strokes of lightning have been conveyed through the common leaden pipes affixed to houses to carry down the water from the roof to the ground : and there is no account of such pipes being melted and destroyed, as must sometimes have happened, if they had been insufficient. We can then only judge of the dimensions proper for a conductor of lightning, ■ we do of those proper for a *conductor of rain*, by past observation. And ■ we think ■ pipe of three inches' bore sufficient to carry off the rain that falls on a square of twenty feet, because we ■ saw such ■ pipe glutted by any shower ; ■ we may judge ■ conductor of ■ inch diameter, more than sufficient for any stroke of lightning that will fall on its point. It is true that if another deluge should happen wherein the windows of heaven ■ to be opened, such pipes may be unequal to the falling quantity ; and if God for ■ sins should think fit to rain fire upon us, ■ upon some cities of old, it is not expected that ■ conductors, of whatever size, should secure our houses against a miracle. Probably ■ water drawn up into the air, and

there forming clouds, is disposed to fall again in rain by its natural gravity, as ■■■ a number of particles sufficient to make ■ drop ■■■ get together ; ■ when the clouds are (by whatever means) over or undercharged (with the *electric fluid*) to ■ degree sufficient to attract them towards the earth, the equilibrium is restored, before the difference becomes great beyond that degree. Mr. *Lane's electrometer*, for limiting precisely the quantity of ■ shock that is to be administered in a medical view, may serve to make this more easily intelligible. The discharging knob does by a screw approach the conductor to the distance intended, but there remains fixed. Whatever power there may be in a glass globe to collect the fulminating fluid, and whatever capacity of receiving and accumulating it there may be in the bottle or glass jar ; yet neither the accumulation, or the discharge, ■■■ exceeds the destined quantity. Thus, were the *clouds* always at a certain fixed distance from the earth, all discharges would be made when the quantity accumulated ■■■ equal to the distance. But there is ■ circumstance which, by occasionally lessening the distance, lessens the discharge ; to wit, the moveableness of the clouds, and their being drawn ■■■ to the earth by attraction when electrified ; ■ that discharges ■ thereby rendered more frequent and of ■■■ less violent. Hence whatever the quantity may be in nature, and what- ■■■ the power in the clouds of collecting it ; yet

an accumulation and force beyond what mankind has hitherto been acquainted with, is **■■■■** to be expected.'

B. F.

■ THE SPOTS ■ THE SUN: A ■■■ HYPOTHESIS.

TO MR. HUMPHRY MARSHALL.

SIR,

London, Feb. 14, 1773.

A CONSIDERABLE time after its arrival, I received the box of seeds you sent me the beginning of last year, with your observations on spots of the sun. The seeds I distributed among some of my friends who are curious : accept my thankful acknowledg-

* It may be fit to mention here, that the immediate occasion of the dispute concerning the preference between pointed and blunt conductors of lightning, arose as follows:—A powder mill having blown up at Brescia, in consequence of its being struck with lightning, the English board of ordnance applied to their painter, Mr. Wilson, then of some note as an electrician, for a method to prevent the like accident to their magazines at Purfleet. Mr. Wilson having advised a blunt conductor, and it being understood that Dr. Franklin's opinion, formed upon the spot, was for a pointed one; the matter was referred in 1772 to the Royal Society, and by them, as usual, to a committee, who, after consultation, prescribed a method conformable to Dr. Franklin's theory. When a harmless stroke of lightning having, under particular circumstances, fallen upon one of the buildings and its apparatus, in May 1777, the subject came again into violent agitation, and was again referred to the society, by the society again referred to a committee, which committee confirmed the decision of the first committee.

ments for them. The observations I communicated to our astronomers of the Royal Society, who were much pleased with them, and hand them about from one to another; so that I have had little opportunity of examining them myself, they not being yet returned to me. Here are various opinions about the solar spots. Some think them vast clouds of smoke and soot arising from the consuming fuel on the surface, which in length take fire again on their edges, consuming and daily diminishing till they totally disappear. Others think them spots of the surface, in which the fire has been extinguished, and which by degrees is rekindled. It is however remarkable, that though large spots are seen gradually to become small ones, Mr. Cassini has observed a small spot gradually become a large one; at least I do not remember to have met with such an observation. If this be so, it should seem they are suddenly formed of their full size; and perhaps if there were such constant and diligent observers as you, it might happen to be observing at the instant such a spot was formed, when the appearances might give some ground of conjecture by what they were formed. The professor of astronomy at Glasgow, Dr. Wilson, has a hypothesis. It is this: that the sun is a globe of solid matter, combustible, perhaps, but whose surface only is actually on fire to a certain depth, below which depth unkindled,

like a log of wood, whose surface to half an inch deep may be burning coal, while all within remains wood. Then he supposes, by some explosion similar to our earthquakes, the burning part may be blown away from a particular district, leaving bare the unkindled part below, which then appears a spot, and only lessens as the fluid burning matter by degrees flows in upon it on all sides, and at last covers or rekindles it. He founds this opinion on certain appearances of the edges of the spots as they turn under the sun's disk, as emerge again on the other side: for if there are such hollows in the sun's face as he supposes, and the bright border round their edges be the fluid burning matter flowing down the banks into the hollow, it will follow, that while a spot is in the middle of the sun's disk, the eye looking directly upon the whole, may discern that border all round; but when the hollow is moved round to the edge of the disk, then, though the eye which views it aslant see full the farthest bank, yet that which is nearest is hidden, and not to be distinguished; and when the same spot emerges again on the other side of the sun, the bank which before was visible is now concealed, and that concealed which before was visible, gradually changing, however, till the spot reaches the middle of the disk, when the bank all round may be seen as before. Perhaps your telescope may be scarce strong enough to observe this. If it is,

I wish to know whether you find the same appearances. When your observations are returned to me, and I have considered them, I shall lodge them among the papers of the society, and let you know their sentiments. With great esteem and regard, I am, &c.

B. FRANKLIN.

ON THE ANALOGY BETWEEN MAGNETISM AND
ELECTRICITY.

TO MONSIEUR DUBOURG.

SIR,

London, March 10, 1773.

As to the magnetism which seems produced by electricity, my real opinion is, that these two powers of nature have ■ affinity whatever with each other, and that the apparent production of magnetism is purely accidental. The matter may be explained thus:—

1st. The earth is ■ great magnet.

2dly. There is a subtile fluid, called the magnetic fluid, which exists in all ferruginous bodies, equally attracted by all their parts, and equally diffused through their whole substance; at least where the equilibrium is not disturbed by a power superior to the attraction of the iron.

3dly. This natural quantity of the magnetic fluid, which is contained in ■ given piece of iron, may be put in motion, so as to be ■ rarefied in one part; and more condensed in another; ■ ■

withdrawn by any force that are yet made acquainted with, so as to leave the whole in a negative state, at least relatively to its natural quantity; neither can it be introduced to put the iron into a positive state, or render it *plus*. In this respect, therefore, magnetism differs from electricity.

4thly. A piece of soft iron allows the magnetic fluid which it contains to be put in motion by a moderate force, that being placed in a line with the magnetic pole of the earth, it immediately acquires the properties of a magnet; its magnetic fluid being drawn or forced from one extremity to the other; and this effect continues as long as it remains in the same position, one of its extremities becoming positively magnetised, and the other negatively. This temporary magnetism ceases as soon as the iron is turned east and west, the fluid immediately diffusing itself equally through the whole iron, as in its natural state.

5thly. The magnetic fluid in hard iron, or steel, is put in motion with more difficulty, requiring a force greater than the magnetism of the earth to excite it; and when once it has been forced from one extremity of the steel to the other, it is not easy for it to return; thus a bar of steel is converted into a permanent magnetic.

6thly. A great heat, by expanding the substance of the steel, and increasing the distance between its particles; affords a passage to the electric fluid,

which ■ thus again restored ■ its proper equilibrium; the bar appearing no longer to possess magnetic virtue.

7thly. A bar of steel, which is not magnetic, being placed in the same position relatively ■ the pole of the earth which the magnetic needle ■■ assumes, and in this position being heated and suddenly cooled, becomes ■ permanent magnet. The reason is, that while the bar ■■ hot, the magnetic fluid which it naturally contained, ■■ easily forced from one extremity to the other by the magnetic virtue of the earth; and that the hard-
■ and condensation produced by the sudden cooling of the bar, retained it in this ■■ without permitting it to resume its original situation.

8thly. The violent vibrations of the particles of ■ steel bar, when forcibly struck in the same position, separate the particles in such ■ manner during their vibration, that they permit a portion of the magnetic fluid to pass, influenced by the natural magnetism of the earth; and ■ is afterwards so forcibly retained by the re-approach of the particles when the vibration ceases, that the ■■ becomes a permanent magnet.

9thly. An electric shock passing through ■ needle ■ ■ like position, and dilating it for an instant, renders it for the ■■ reason ■ permanent magnet; that is, not by imparting magnetism to it, but by allowing its proper magnetic fluid ■ put itself in motion.

10thly. Thus there is not in reality magnetism in a given piece of steel after it is become magnetic, than existed in it before. The natural quantity is only displaced and repelled.—Hence it follows that a strong apparatus of magnets may charge millions of bars of steel, without communicating to them any part of its proper magnetism; only putting in motion the magnetism which already existed in these bars.

I am chiefly indebted to that excellent philosopher of Petersburg, M. Æpinus, for this hypothesis, which appears to me equally ingenious and solid. I say *chiefly*, because, it is many years since I read his book, which I have left in America, it may happen, that I may have added to or altered it in some respect; and if I have misrepresented any thing, the error ought to be charged to my account.

If this hypothesis appears admissible, it will answer to the greater part of your questions.—I have only one remark to add, which is, that however great the force is of magnetism employed, you only convert a given portion of steel into a magnet of a force proportioned to its capacity of retaining its magnetic fluid in the position in which it is placed, without letting it return. Now this power is different in different kinds of steel, but limited in all kinds whatever.

B. FRANKLIN.

THE CHOICE OF GLASS ■■■ LEYDEN-
EXPERIMENT.

TO THE SAME.

SIR,

London, June 1, 1773.

I WISH, with you, that ■■■ chemist (who should, if possible, be at the same time ■ electrician), would, in pursuance of the excellent hints contained in your letter, undertake to work upon glass with the view which you have recommended. By means of ■ perfect knowledge of this substance, with respect to its electrical qualities, we might proceed with ■■■ certainty, as well in making our own experiments, as in repeating those which have been made by others in different countries, which I believe have frequently been attended with different success on account of differences in the glass employed, thence occasioning frequent misunderstandings and contrariety of opinions.

There is another circumstance much to be desired with respect to glass, and that is, that it should not be subject to break when highly charged in the Leyden experiment. I have known eight jars broken out of twenty, and, ■ another time, twelve out of thirty-five. A similar loss would greatly discourage electricians desirous of accumulating a great power for certain experiments.—We have ■■■ been able hitherto to account for the ■■■ of such misfortunes. The ■■■ idea which occurs is, that the positive electri-

city being accumulated on one side of the glass, rushes violently through it, in order to supply the deficiency on the other side, and to restore the equilibrium. This, however, I cannot conceive to be the true reason, when I consider that a great number of jars being united, ■ ■ to be charged and discharged at the ■■■■ time, the breaking of a single jar will discharge the whole; for, if the accident proceeded from the weakness of the glass, it is not probable that eight of them should be precisely of the same degree of weakness, ■ to break every ■■ at the same instant, it being ■■■■ likely that the weakest should break first, and, by breaking, ■■■■ the rest; and again, when it is necessary to produce a certain effect, by means of the whole charge passing through a determined circle, (as, for instance, to melt ■ small wire,) if the charge, instead of passing in this circle, rushed through the sides of the jars, the intended effect would not be produced, which, however, is contrary to fact. For these reasons, I suspect, that there is, in the substance of the glass, either ■■■■ little globules of air, ■ some portions of unvitified sand ■ salt, into which ■ quantity of the electric fluid may be forced during the charge, and there retained till the general discharge; and that the force being suddenly withdrawn, the elasticity of the fluid acts upon the glass in which it was enclosed, ■■ being able to escape hastily without breaking the glass. I offer

this only as a conjecture, which I leave to others to examine.

The globe which I had which could not be excited, though it was from the same glass-house which furnished the other excellent globes in my possession, was not of the same frit. The glass which was usually manufactured there, was rather of the green kind, and chiefly intended for drinking-glasses and bottles; but the proprietors being desirous of attempting a trial of white glass, the globe in question was from this frit. The glass not being of a perfect white, the proprietors were dissatisfied with it, and abandoned their project.— I suspected that too great a quantity of salt was admitted into the composition; but I am no judge of these matters.

B. FRANKLIN.

ON THE DEATH OF PERSONS STRUCK BY LIGHTNING.

SIR, To the SAME.

YOUR observations on the nature of death, and the experiments which you propose for recalling to life those who appear to be killed by lightning, demonstrate equally your sagacity and your humanity. It appears, that the doctrines of life and death, in general, are yet but little understood.

A toad buried in sand will live, it is said, till the sand becomes petrified; and then, being enclosed in the stone, it may still live, for we know

not how many ages. The facts which are cited in support of this opinion are too numerous, and too circumstantial, not to deserve a certain degree of credit. As we are accustomed to see all the animals with which we are acquainted, eat and drink, it appears to us difficult to conceive how a toad can be supported in such a dungeon: but, if we reflect, that the necessity of nourishment which animals experience in their ordinary state, proceeds from the continual waste of their substance by perspiration, it will appear less incredible, that some animals in a torpid state, perspiring less because they use no exercise, should have less need of aliment; and that others, which are covered with scales or shells, which stop perspiration, such as land and sea turtles, serpents, and some species of fish, should be able to subsist a considerable time without any nourishment whatever. A plant, with its flowers, fades and dies immediately, if exposed to the air without having its root immersed in a humid soil, from which it may draw a sufficient quantity of moisture to supply that which exhales from its substance, and is carried off continually by the air. Perhaps, however, if it were buried in quicksilver, it might preserve for a considerable space of time its vegetable life, its smell and color. If this be the case, it might prove a commodious method of transporting from distant countries those delicate plants which are unable to sustain the inclemency of the weather at sea, and which require

particular care and attention.—I have ■■■ ■■ instance of common flies preserved in ■ manner somewhat similar. They had been drowned in Madeira wine, apparently about the time when it was bottled in Virginia, to be sent hither (to London). At the opening of ■■■ of the bottles, at the house of ■ friend where I then was, three drowned flies fell into the first glass which was filled. Having heard it remarked, that drowned flies ■■■ capable of being revived by the rays of the sun, I proposed making the experiment upon these: they were therefore exposed to the sun upon a sieve, which had been employed to strain them out of the wine. In less than three hours two of them began by degrees to recover life. They commenced by some convulsive motions in the thighs, and at length they raised themselves upon their legs, wiped their eyes with their fore-feet, beat and brushed their wings with their hind-feet, and soon after began to fly, finding themselves in Old England without knowing how they came thither. The third continued lifeless till sunset, when, losing all hopes of him, he was thrown away.

I wish it were possible, from this instance, to invent a method of embalming drowned persons, in such ■ manner that they might be recalled to life ■ any period, however distant; for, having ■ very ardent desire to ■■ and observe the state of America ■ hundred years hence, I should prefer to any ordinary death, the being immersed in a

cask of Madeira wine, with ■ few friends, till that time, to be then recalled to life by the solar warmth of my dear country! But since in all probability ■ live in an age too early and too near the infancy of science, to hope to see such an art brought in our time to its perfection, I must for the present content myself with the treat which you ■ so kind ■ to promise me, of the resurrection of ■ fowl ■ a turkey-cock. I am, &c.

B. FRANKLIN.

ON THE MODE OF RENDERING MEAT TENDER BY
ELECTRICITY.

TO MESSRS. DUBOURG AND D'ALIBARD.

MY DEAR FRIENDS,

My answer to your questions concerning the mode of rendering meat tender by electricity, can only be founded upon conjecture; for I have not experiments enough to warrant the facts. All that I ■ say at present is, that I think electricity might be employed for this purpose; and I shall state what follows ■ the observations or ■ which make ■ presume so.

It has been observed that lightning, by rarefying and reducing into vapor the moisture contained in solid wood, in ■ oak, for instance, has forcibly separated its fibres, and broken it into small splinters; that by penetrating completely the hardest metals, as iron, it has separated the parts

in ■ instant, ■ ■ to convert ■ perfect solid into a state of fluidity : it is not then improbable, that the same subtile matter passing through the bodies of animals with rapidity, should possess sufficient force to produce an effect nearly similar.

The flesh of animals fresh killed in the usual ■■■■ is firm, hard, and not in a very eatable state, because the particles adhere too forcibly to each other. At ■ certain period the cohesion is weakened, and in its progress towards putrefaction, which tends to produce a total separation, the flesh becomes what ■■ call tender, or is in that state most proper to be used as our food.

It has frequently been remarked, that animals killed by lightning putrefy immediately. This cannot be invariably the case, since a quantity of lightning sufficient to kill, may not be sufficient to tear and divide the fibres and particles of flesh, and reduce them to that tender state which is the prelude to putrefaction. Hence it is that some animals killed in this ■■■■ will keep longer than others. But the putrefaction sometimes proceeds with surprising celerity. A respectable person assured ■■ that he once knew ■ remarkable instance of this. A whole flock of sheep in Scotland being closely assembled under ■ tree, were killed by ■ flash of lightning ; and it being rather late in the evening, the proprietor, desirous of saving something, sent persons early the next morning ■■ flay them ; ■■ the putrefaction was such, and the

stench so abominable, that they had not the courage to execute their orders, and the bodies were accordingly buried in their skins. It is not unreasonable to presume, that between the period of their death and that of their putrefaction, a time intervened in which the flesh might be only tender, and only sufficiently so to be served at table. Add to this, that persons who have eaten of fowls killed by our feeble imitation of lightning (electricity) and dressed immediately, have asserted that the flesh is remarkably tender.

The little utility of this practice has perhaps prevented its being much adopted. For though it sometimes happens that a company unexpectedly arriving at a country-house, or an unusual conflux of travellers in an inn, may render it necessary to kill a number of animals for immediate use; yet as travellers have commonly a good appetite, little attention has been paid to the trifling inconvenience of having their meat a little tough. As this kind of death is nevertheless sudden, and consequently less severe than any other, if this should operate as a motive with compassionate persons to employ it for animals sacrificed for their use, they may conduct the process thus:—

Having prepared a battery of six large glass jars, (each from 20 to 24 pints,) as for the Leyden experiment, and having established a communication, as usual, from the interior surface of each with the prime conductor; and having given them

a charge, (which with a good machine may be executed in a few minutes, and may be estimated by an electrometer,) a chain which communicates with the exterior of the jars must be wrapped round the thighs of the fowl; after which the operator, holding it by the wings turned back, and made to touch behind, must raise it high that the head may receive the first shock from the prime conductor. The animal dies instantly. Let the head be immediately cut off to make it bleed, when it may be plucked and dressed immediately. This quantity of electricity is supposed sufficient for a turkey of ten pounds weight, and perhaps for a lamb. Experience alone will inform us of the requisite proportions for animals of different forms and ages. Probably not less will be required to render a small bird which is very old tender, than for a larger one which is young. It is easy to furnish the requisite quantity of electricity, by employing a greater or less number of jars. As six jars, however, discharged at once, are capable of giving a very violent shock, the operator must be very circumspect, lest he should happen to make the experiment on his own flesh, instead of that of the fowl.

B. FRANKLIN.

THE NATURE OF SEA-COAL.

To MONS. DUBOURG.

I AM persuaded well you, that the sea-coal has a vegetable origin, and that it has been formed under the surface of the earth; but preceding convulsions of nature had served to bury it very deep in many places, and covered with many different strata, we are indebted to subsequent convulsions for having brought within our view the extremities of its veins, so as to lead us to penetrate the earth in search of it. I visited last summer a large coal-mine at Whitehaven in Cumberland; and in following the vein, and descending by degrees towards the sea, I penetrated below the ocean, where the level of its surface was more than 800 fathom above my head; and the miners assured me that their works extended several miles beyond the place where I then was, continually and gradually descending under the sea. The slate which forms the roof of this coal-mine is impressed in many places with the figures of leaves and branches of fern, which undoubtedly grew at the surface, when the slate was in the state of sand on the banks of the sea. Thus it appears that this vein of coal has suffered a prodigious settlement.

B. F.

ANSWER TO SOME INQUIRIES RESPECTING THE
ART OF SWIMMING.

TO THE SAME.

I AM apprehensive that I shall not be able to find leisure for making the disquisitions and experiments which would be desirable on this subject. I must therefore content myself with a few remarks.

The specific gravity of some human bodies, in comparison with that of water, has been examined by Mr. Robertson, in Philosophical Transactions, vol. 50, page 30, for the year 1757.—He asserts that fat persons with small bones float most easily upon water.

The diving bell is also accurately described in our Transactions.

When a youth, I made two oval pallets, each about ten inches long, and six broad, with a hole for the thumb, in order to retain it fast in the palm of my hand. They much resembled a painter's pallets. In swimming I pushed the edges of these forward, and I struck the water with their flat surfaces. I drew them back. I remember I swam faster by means of these pallets, but they fatigued my wrists. I also fitted to the soles of my feet a kind of sandals, but I was not satisfied with them, because I observed that the stroke is partly given by the inside of the feet and the ancles, and not entirely with the soles of the feet.

We have here waistcoats for swimmers, which are made of double sail-cloth, with small pieces of cork quilted in between them.

I know nothing of the *scaphandre* of M. de la Chapelle.

I know by experience that it is a great comfort to a swimmer, who has a considerable distance to go, to turn himself sometimes on his back, and to vary in other respects the manner of procuring a progressive motion.

When he is seized with the cramp in the leg, the method of driving it away is to give to the parts affected a sudden and vigorous and violent shock, which he may do in the air as he swims on his back.

During the great heats of summer there is a danger in bathing, however warm we may be, in rivers which have been thoroughly warmed by the sun. But to throw one-self into cold spring water when the body has been heated by exercise in the sun, is an imprudence which may prove fatal. I once knew an instance of four young men, who having worked at harvest in the heat of the day, with a view of refreshing themselves plunged into a spring of cold water; two died upon the spot, a third the next morning, and the fourth recovered with great difficulty. A copious draught of cold water, in similar circumstances, is frequently attended with the same effect in North America.

The exercise of swimming is one of the most healthy and agreeable in the world. After having swam for an hour or two in the evening, ■■■ sleeps coolly the whole night, even during the most ardent heats of summer. Perhaps the pores being cleansed, the insensible perspiration increases and occasions this coolness. It is certain that much swimming is ■ means of stopping a diarrhoea, and even of producing ■ constipation. With respect to those who do not know how to swim, ■ who are affected with a diarrhoea at ■ ■■■ which does not permit them to use that exercise, ■ ■■■ bath, by cleansing and purifying the skin is found very salutary, and often effects a radical cure. I speak from my ■■■ experience frequently repeated, and that of others to whom I have recommended this.

You will not be displeased if I conclude these hasty remarks by informing you, that ■ the ordinary method of swimming is reduced to the act of rowing with the ■■■ and legs, and is consequently ■ laborious and fatiguing operation when the space of water to be crossed is considerable; there is a method in which ■ swimmer may pass to great distances with much facility, by means of a sail:—this discovery I fortunately made by accident, and in the following manner:—

When I ■■■ a boy, I amused myself ■■ day with flying ■ paper kite; and approaching ■■ bank of a pond which was ■■■ mile broad, the

weather being very warm, I tied the string to a stake, and the kite ascended to ■ very considerable height above the pond, while I ■■ swimming. In ■ little time, being desirous of amusing myself with my kite, and enjoying at the ■■ time the pleasure of swimming, I returned; and loosing from the stake the string with the little stick that ■■ fastened to it, I went again into the water, where I found that lying on my back and holding the stick in my hands, I ■■ drawn along the surface of the water in a very agreeable manner. Having then engaged another boy to carry my clothes round the pond to a place which I pointed out to him on the other side, I began to cross the pond with my kite, which carried me quite ■■ without the least fatigue, and with the greatest pleasure imaginable. I was only obliged occasionally to halt ■ little in my course, and resist its progress, when it appeared that by following too quick I lowered the kite too much; by doing which occasionally, I made it rise again. I have ■■ since that time practised this singular mode of swimming, though I think it not impossible ■■ in this ■■■■ from Dover to Calais.—The packet boat, however, is ■■ preferable. Yours,

B. FRANKLIN.

STOVES FOR PUBLIC BUILDINGS.

Extract from a Letter to Dr. Cooper.

London, July 7, 1773.

“ I CONGRATULATE you on the finishing of your meeting-house. I have considered well I can, without being on the spot, the intention of warming it by some machine in the cold damp It must be a matter of difficulty to warm sensibly all the air in large and so lofty room, especially if the fire is not kept up in it constantly the week days as well as Sundays. For though the machine is very large and made very hot, yet the space of air and quantity of wall to be warmed is great, that it must be long before any considerable effect will be produced. Then it will descend by the walls and windows, which being very cold by the preceding week's absence of fire will cool that descending air much in long descent, that it will fall very heavily and uncomfortably upon the heads of all that happened to sit under it, and will proceed in cold currents along the floor to the warming machine wherever it is situated. This must continue till the walls warmed, for which I think day is by sufficient, and that therefore fire kindled in the morning of the Sabbath will afford no comfort to the congregation that day, except to a few that sit near it, and some inconvenience to the rest from the currents above-mentioned. If, how-

ever, your people, as they are rich, can afford it, may be willing to indulge themselves, should choose to keep up a constant fire in the winter months, you may have from this country a machine for the purpose, cast from the patterns with those used at the Bank, or that in Lincoln's Inn Hall, which is placed in the middle of the respective rooms. The smoke of these descends, and passing under ground, rises in some chimney at a distance. Yours must be a chimney built, I suppose, without the house; and it ought to draw well to prevent your being troubled with smoke (as they often are at the Bank), it should be on the south side; but this I fear would disfigure your front. That at Lincoln's Inn Hall draws better. They are in the form of temples, cast in iron, with columns, cornices, and every member of elegant architecture. And I mention casting them from the patterns or moulds, because those being already made, a great deal of work and expense will thereby be saved. But if you cast them in New England, a large vase, an antique altar, which in more simple forms, may answer the purpose well, and be more easily executed. Yet after all, when I consider the little effect I have observed from these machines in those great rooms, the complaints of people who have tried Buzaglo's stoves in halls, how far your meeting-house must exceed them in all its dimensions, I apprehend, that after

■ great deal of expense, and ■ good deal of dust ■ the seats and in the pews, which they constantly occasion, you will not find your expectations ■ swered. And persuaded as I am, from philosophic considerations, that ■ *one ever* catches the disorder we call a cold from cold air, and therefore never at meeting, ■ should think ■ rather advisable to those who cannot well bear it, to guard against the short inconvenience of cold feet, (which only takes place towards the end of the service,) by basses or bear-skin ■ to put the legs in, or by small stoves with ■ few coals under foot, *more majorum*.

PREPARATORY NOTES AND HINTS FOR WRITING A
PAPER CONCERNING WHAT IS CALLED CATCHING
OF COLD.

DEFINITION ■ A COLD.

It is ■ siziness and thickness of the blood, whereby the smaller vessels ■ obstructed, and the perspirable matter retained, which being ■ tained offends both by its quantity and quality; by quantity, ■ it outfills the vessels, and by its quality, ■ part of it is acrid, and being retained, produces coughs and sneezing by irritation.

HOW THIS ■ PRODUCED.

1. By being long exposed in a cold air, without exercise: cold thickens glue.

2. By ■ diminished perspiration, either (1) from breathing and living in moist air, or (2) from the clogging of the pores by clammy sweat dried ■ and fastening down the scales of the skin ; or (3) by cold constringing the pores partially ■ totally, sleeping or waking ; or (4) by having eat food of too gross particles for free perspiration, ■ oysters, pork, ducks, &c. People ■ found frequently costive after much bathing.

3. By repletion, ■ when more is thrown into the habit by eating and drinking than ■ perspiration is capable of discharging in due time ; whence the vessels ■ distended beyond their spring, and the quantity of contained fluid, that should be briskly moved to preserve or acquire a due thinness, is too weighty for their force, whence ■ slow motion,—thence viscosity. This repletion ■ increased by ■ constipation of the belly happening at the ■ time. In an approaching cold, more water is made than usual.

4. By cooling suddenly in the air after exercise. Exercise quickening the circulation, produces more perspirable matter in a given time, than is produced in rest. And though ■ is likewise ■ ally discharged during exercise, yet on sudden quitting of exercise, and standing in the air, the circulation and production of perspirable matter still continuing ■ time, the over quantity is retained. It is safer not to go into water too cold.

■ By particular effluvia in ■ air, from ■ unknown cause. General colds throughout ■ country. By being in ■ coach close, ■ small ■ with ■ person having ■ cold.

6. By relaxation of the solids, from ■ moist air, so that they are too weak to give due motion to the fluids.

■ partial colds affecting parts only of ■ body.

Causes of feverishness attending colds.

Ill consequences often attending colds, ■ pleurisy, consumptions, &c. Some never taking cold, ■ frequently ; ■ of the difference.

Present remedies for a cold, should be warming, diluting, bracing.

Means of preventing cold ; temperance, choice of meats and drinks, warm rooms, and lodging and clothing in winter ; dry air, ■ to keep the belly open, and frequent discharge of water ; ■ bathing to cleanse the skin : rubbing after sweat, especially in the spring.

Difficulties that first put me on thinking on this subject. People get cold by less, and not by more, viz.

By putting ■ a damp shirt ■ a dry body—Yes.

By putting ■ a dry shirt ■ a wet body, though ■ the shirt ■ times more—No.

By sitting in ■ room, where the floor has been newly washed—Yes.

By going into a river, and staying there an hour (no sheets wet)—No.

By wetting the feet only—Yes.

By wetting all the clothes through to the body, and wearing them a whole day—No.

By sitting in a room against a crevice—Yes.

By sitting long in the open air—No.

Few of these effects take place, if the vessels kept empty.

Reapers in Pennsylvania :

Drinking cold water when they hot.

If it makes them sweat, they safe,

If not they fall ill, and some die.

People hot, should drink by spoonfuls : the reason.

Taking cold. The disorder only called so in English, and in other language.

American Indians, in the woods, and the whites in imitation of them, lie with their feet to the fire in frosty nights, and *take no cold* while they keep their feet

Feet and hands apt to be cold in that disorder, and why. Is it the siziness, or the greater evaporation !

Hottentots grease themselves,—occasions other evacuations plentiful. Greasing keeps the body Bad to hold the water too long. Parts colder when first unclothed than afterwards, why ?

It was a disgrace among the ancient Persians to cough or spit.

Probably it argued intemperance.

Vessels when too full, leak. Quicksilver through leather. Thin fluid leaked evaporates. Corners of eyes, &c. Sisy will not all evaporate. What is left corrupts. Hence consumptions. Hectic fevers, from absorption of putrid pus. It ferments the blood like yeast.

People seldom get cold at sea, though they sleep in wet clothes. Constant exercise, moderate living. Bad cooks. Yet air is very moist. Wet floors. Sea surrounding, &c.

Exercise cures a cold. Bishop Williams riding several times from London to Exeter, to Salisbury.

Bark good for a cold taken early.

Particular parts more accustomed to discharge the irritating perspirable matter, as under the arms in some, feet in others, &c.

Experiment of two persons

Every pain or disorder ascribed to a cold.

It is the covering excuse of all intemperance.

Numbers of people in a close room, and exercising there, fill the air with putrid particles.

People killed by House of Commons, breathing the air through holes in ceiling.

Think they get cold by coming out of such hot rooms; they get them by being in.

Those who live in hotter rooms (stoves) get no colds;

Germans and all the northern people.

Alderman and turtle.

People remark they were very well before a cold, and eat hearty. Wonder how they caught it.

Signs of Temperance.

Mouth not clammy after sleep.

Saliva thin and watery.

Eyelids not stuck together with hard glue.

Voice clear.

No phlegm to raise.

Advice for mode of general temperance without appearing too singular.

Supper not bad after preparatory light dinner.

May be rectified by slight breakfast next morning.

He must be too full that ~~will~~ will much disorder.

Time of great meal mended of late.

One hour variation of compass in twenty years.

After dinner not fit for business.

People from the country get cold when they come to London, and why? Full living with moist air. London air generally moist, why? Much putrid air in London. Silver, &c.

Cooks and doctors should change maxims.

Common ~~is~~ common among the common Scotch.

Those who do not compare, cannot conceive the

difference between themselves and themselves in full spare living.

Wet newspapers, why give colds.

Old libraries, and damp old books.

Putrid animal matter in paper size.

Courts should not sit after dinner.

Juries fast, a good institution.

Chess—Impatience of deliberation because more difficult. Writing, &c.

Most follies arise from full feeding. Reasons *pro* and not all present.

Temperate nations wisest.

Dining entertainments bad.

Remains of barbarism—expensive.

Full feeding of children stupifies.

Fasting strengthens reason rather than subdues passion.

People often do not get cold when they think they do, and do when they think they do not.

Causes of colds are primary and secondary.

Colds are of different kinds, putrid and plethoric.

Scarce any air abroad is unwholesome in a close room often breathed.

Warm air dissolves more moisture than cold.

In hot countries wrap themselves in wet sheets to sleep.

A general service to redeem people from the slavish fear of getting cold, by showing them where danger is not, and that where it is, 'tis in their power to avoid it.

Surfeit, ■ expression formerly used, ■ laid aside.

Costiveness occasioning colds, how to be prevented.

Colds formerly called rheums and catarrhs.

Particular foods said to engender rheums.

Quere. Is Mr. Wood ■ ■ less subject to catch cold since he betook himself to his low diet?

Answer (by Mr. Wood). He now finds himself *much* ■ healthy, and *much less* liable to catch cold. What few colds he ■ catches ■ very slight that he is not sensible of them, but from the urine, which is then not so clear.

I caused the above question to be asked Mr. Wood, and obtained the answer. It is the Mr. Wood who lives upon a pound of flour in ■ pudding.

B. FRANKLIN.

Dampier, speaking of the customs of the people ■ Mindanoo, p. 330, says,

"You ■ abundance of people in the river from morning to night washing their bodies or clothes : they strip and stand naked till they have done | then put them on and march out again."

Dr. Gregory says,

All that class of diseases which arise from catching cold, is found only among the civilised part of mankind. An old Roman or an Indian, in ■ pursuit of ■ or hunting, would plunge

into a river whilst in ■ profuse sweat, without fear, ■ without danger. The greater ■ take to prevent catching cold, by the various contrivances of modern luxury, the ■ we become subject to it. We can guard against cold only by rendering ourselves superior to its influence. There is ■ striking instance of this in the vigorous constitutions of children who go thinly clad in ■ seasons and weathers.

The coats of the vessels ■ a kind of network which contains the fluids only when not so pressed ■ to enlarge the pores of the net, or when the fluids are not ■ pressed as to break the cohesion of the globules or particles, so ■ to make them small enough to come through. When the vessels are full, occasioned by a course of full living, they labor in carrying ■ the circulation; their spring or power of contraction and compressing the fluids they contain, being overstrained, is weakened, the circulation proceeds ■ slowly, the fluids thicken and become ■ gluey, both for want of due churning and because less heat ■ produced in the body. Such ■ body requires more aid of clothing and fire to preserve its warmth.

■ a person in that state of body walks ■ mile or two, or ■ any other exercise that ■ him, the fluids are rarefied by ■ heat, distend the ■ sels still more, and the thinner parts of ■

in tender places force out through the pores of the vessels in form of a gluey water, viz. the eyes, within the nose, and within the lungs. This in moderate exercise.

If the exercise is increased it comes through every pore in the skin, and is called sweat.

The most volatile parts of this extravasated fluid evaporate, and fly off in the air; the gluey part remains, thickens and hardens more or less, it becomes more or less dry; in the nose and on the lungs where air is continually coming and going, it becomes a mucus, but hardly grow drier because surrounded with moist parts and supplied with more moisture. What comes out of the corner of the eye when shut, as in sleep, hardens into what is called a kind of gum, being in fact dry glue.

This in a morning almost sticks the eyelids together.

With such mucous matter the throat is sometimes almost stopped, and must be cleared by strong blowing.

In the wind-pipe and in the lungs it gathers and is impacted, as sometimes to induce continual coughing and hawking to discharge it.

If not easily discharged, but remaining long adhering to the lungs, it corrupts and inflames the parts it is in contact with; it is behind the ears and between the parts of the body so constantly in contact, that the perspirable matter, sweat, &c.

cannot easily escape from between them; the skin inflamed by it, and partial putrefaction begins to take place, they corrupt and ulcerate. The vessels being thus wounded discharge greater and continual quantities. Hence consumption.

Part of the corrupted matter absorbed again by the vessels and mixed with the blood occasions hectic fevers.

When the body has sweated, not from dissolution of fluids, but from the force above mentioned, the sweat dries off, some clammy substance remains in the pores, which closes many of them, wholly or in part. The subsequent perspiration is hereby lessened.

The perspirable matter consists of parts approaching to putrefaction, and therefore destined by nature to be thrown off, that living bodies might not putrefy, which otherwise, from their warmth and moisture, they would be apt to do.

These corrupting particles, if continually thrown off, the remainder of the body continues uncorrupted, approaches to a state of putrefaction. Just as in boiling water, no greater degree of heat than the boiling heat can be acquired, because the particles that grow hotter, as fast as they become so, fly off in vapor. But if the vapor could be retained, water might be made much hotter, perhaps red hot, as oil may, which is not so subject to evaporation. So if the perspirable is retained mixes with blood, and pro-

first, a slight putrid fever, attending always what we call a cold, and when retained in a great degree, mischievous putrid diseases.

In hot countries, exercise of body with the heat of the climate create much of this putrid perspirable matter, which ought to be discharged. A check is in those countries very pernicious; putrid malignant violent fevers, and speedy death, the consequence.

Its discharge is also checked another way besides that of closing the pores, viz. by being in an air already full of it, as in close rooms containing great numbers of people, play-houses, ball-rooms, &c.

For air containing a quantity of any kind of vapor, becomes thereby less capable of imbibing more of that vapor, and finally will take no more of it.

If the air will not take it off from the body, it remain in the body; and the perspiration is as effectually stopped, and the perspirable matter certainly retained as if the pores all stopped.

A lock of wet wool contained in a nutmeg grater, may dry, parting with its moisture through the holes of the grater. But if you stop all those holes with it will never dry. Nor if exposed to the open air will it dry when the air is moist as itself. On the contrary if already dry, and exposed to moist air, it would acquire moisture.

Thus people in [] heated by a multitude of people, find their own bodies heated: thence the quantity of perspirable matter is increased that should be discharged, but the air not being changed grows [] full of the same matter, that it will [] ceive [] more. So the body must retain it. The consequence is, that next day, perhaps sooner, [] slight putrid fever [] on with all the marks of what we call [] cold, and the disorder is supposed to be got by coming out of [] room, whereas it [] really taken while in that room.

Putrid ferments beget their like.—Small-pox.—Wet rotten paper, containing corrupt glue. The cold fever communicable by the breath to others, &c.

Urine retained, occasions sneezing, &c.

Coughing and spitting continually, marks of intemperance.

People eat much [] than is necessary.

Proportionable nourishment and strength is not drawn from great eating.

The succeeding meals force the preceding through half-undigested.

Small meals continue longer in the body, and are [] thoroughly digested.

The vessels being roomy [] bear and receive without hurt, an accidental []

They can concrete more easily.

There is less quantity of corrupting particles produced.

very bad.

Black hole in the Indies.

LETTER FROM MR. W. SMALL TO DR. FRANKLIN.

DEAR SIR, *Birmingham, 10th Aug. 1771.*

THE reason of your having no [redacted] received the quotation from Celsus, is, that I wished to employ my very first leisure in looking into several other ancient books for passages to the [redacted] purpose and to send you all together. But Mr. Keir having told [redacted] of your desire to [redacted] that immediately, you have it almost alone.

In the article DE TACE in his third book, treating of the cure, he says, "*cavendæ distillationes, ne, si quid [redacted] levarit, exasperent; et ob id, vitanda cruditas, simulque et sol, et frigus.*"¹ Here indigestion [redacted] to be reckoned the principal [redacted]. If you have not attended to that particular before, you may be surprised to find sunshine among the causes of colds, but such is the doctrine of all the ancients. A passage about the instruments of [redacted] in coughs may perhaps amuse you, "*Utilis etiam in omni tussi est pe-*

¹ "[redacted] caution should be observed, when relief is [redacted] obtained, lest catarrhs are made worse; indigestion also, as well as exposure to the [redacted] and cold air, ought to be avoided."

reginatio, navigatio longa, loca maritima, *nationes*."

From several things in Xenophon, and in Plato, the prevailing opinion in their time seems to have been, that what we commonly call colds and catarrhs, arose almost solely from excess and indolence. On this account Xenophon says, that in Persia in the days of Cyrus, to spit or to blow a [] [] infamous. Plato often commends simple spare diet, but in [] place he says [] prevents all *catarrhs*. Whether he [] precisely what [] call catarrhs, however, in that passage, may be doubted.

I do not recollect any absolutely express testimony in your favor from Hippocrates. Mucus (of the nose) and saliva he judges to be signs of repletion, and he maintains that persons who drink and eat sparingly [] free from diseases occasioned by moisture. Abundance may be found in Galen to your purpose. A modern author, who ought to have understood [] subject, for he has written [] great a book about catarrhs,* that you had better have twenty colds than read it, is of your opinion. "*Illa, illa, inquam, cibi potusque abundantia citat catarrhos. Eisdem abigunt frugalitas et labor. Ut [] luxu*

* [] [] coughs it is found beneficial [] take long journeys and voyages, [] reside on the sea-coast, and [] use sea-baths."

* This book upon [] Catarrh is probably that of *Schneiderus*, consisting of four volumes []

otio nascuntur catarrhi, ita horum medicina est in sobrietate, in continentia, in exercitationibus corporis, in mentis tranquillitate. Quotusquisque hæc precepta, has leges vivendi custodit? Homo frugi est avis, &c. *Hinc* mortalium fere sine catarrhis.”¹

Mr. Boulton will soon present you with boxes with invisible hinges. He has astonished our rural philosophers exceedingly by calming the *waves à la Franklin*.²

I am trying some experiments in relation to the improvement of telescopes; should they you shall hear of them.

I beg you will make my most respectful compliments to the fellow travellers who were with you here, and believe me to be with the highest regard, dear Sir, your much obliged and most obedient servant,

W. SMALL.

¹ “Eating and drinking too much, is sufficient of itself, I say, produce Catarrhs. Temperance and active pursuits on contrary drive them away. Catarrhs are produced by luxury indolence, the remedy for these is to observe sobriety, continence, exercise of body and tranquillity of mind. How observe these precepts? Temperance is very rare. Hence very few escape Catarrhs.”

² See WRITINGS, Part IV.

ON THE CAUSES OF COLDS.

March 10, 1773.

* * * * * I shall not attempt to explain why damp clothes occasion colds, rather than wet ones, because I doubt the fact; I imagine that neither the one nor the other contribute to this effect, and that the occurrence of colds is totally independent of wet and even of cold. I propose writing a short paper on this subject, the first moment of leisure I have at my disposal. In the interim time I can only say, that having some suspicions that the common notion, which attributes to cold the property of stopping the pores and obstructing perspiration, was ill founded. I engaged a young physician, who is making various experiments with Sanctorius's balance, to estimate the different proportions of his perspiration, when remaining an hour quite naked, and another warmly clothed. He pursued the experiment in this alternate manner for eight hours successively, and found his perspiration almost double during those hours in which he was naked.

B. FRANKLIN.

May 4, 1773.

The young physician whom I mentioned is dead; and all the notes which he had left of his curious experiments are by some accident lost between our friends Sir John Pringle and Dr. Thomas (Saunders);

these gentlemen, if the papers cannot be recovered, it is to be presumed, will repeat the experiments themselves.*

TO DR. RUSH.

DEAR SIR,

London, July 14, 1773.

I received your favor of May 1, with the pamphlet, for which I am obliged to you. It is well written. I hope that in time the endeavors of the ~~men~~ to liberty and humanity will get ~~the~~ of a practice that has so long disgraced our nation and religion.

A few days after I received your packet for M. Dubourg, I had an opportunity of forwarding ~~it~~ to him per M. Poissonier, physician of Paris, who kindly undertook to deliver it. M. Dubourg has been translating my book² into French. It ~~is~~ nearly printed, and he tells me he purposes ~~a~~ copy for you.

I shall communicate your judicious remark relating to the septic quality of the air transpired by patients in putrid diseases to my friend Dr. Priestley. I hope that after having discovered the benefit of fresh and cool air applied to the sick,

* The ~~same~~ physician here alluded to, is the ~~Dr.~~ Dr. Stark, whose works, including ~~the~~ above experiments, ~~have~~ been published.

² Experiments in electricity.

people will begin to suspect that possibly it may do no harm to the well. I have not seen Dr. Cullen's book, but am glad to hear that he speaks of catarrhs or colds by contagion. I have long been satisfied from observation, that besides the general colds now termed *influenzas*, (which may possibly spread by contagion as well as by a particular quality of the air) people often catch cold from one another when shut up together in close rooms, coaches, &c. and when sitting near and conversing with one another to breathe in each other's transpiration; the disorder being in a certain state. I think too that it is the frowsy corrupt air from animal substances, and the perspired matter from our bodies, which being long confined in beds not lately used, and clothes not lately worn, and books long shut up in close rooms, obtains that kind of putridity which occasions the colds observed upon sleeping in, wearing, and turning over such bed-clothes, or books, and not their coldness or dampness. From these causes, but more from too full living, with too little exercise, proceed in my opinion most of the disorders which for about one hundred and fifty years past the English have called *colds*. As to Dr. Cullen's cold or catarrh or *frigore*, I question whether such a one ever existed. Travelling in our winters, I have suffered cold sometimes to an extremity only short of freezing, but this did not make me catch cold. And for moisture, I have been in the river every

evening two — three hours for a fortnight together, when one would suppose I might imbibe enough of it to *take cold* if humidity could give it ; but no such effect — followed. Boys never get cold by swimming. Nor are people at sea, or who live ■ Bermudas, ■ St. Helena, small islands, where the air must be ever moist from the dashing and breaking of ■ against their rocks ■ all sides, more subject to colds than those who inhabit part of ■ continent where the air is driest. Dampness may indeed assist in producing putridity and those miasmata which infect us with the disorder we call ■ cold ; but of itself ■ never by a little addition of moisture hurt a body filled with watery fluids from head to foot. With great esteem and sincere wishes for your welfare, I am, Sir, your most obedient humble servant,

B. FRANKLIN.

MOIST AIR NOT UNHEALTHY.

TO DR. PERCIVAL.

London, Oct. 15, 1773.

■ ■ * ■ ■ *

— “THE difference of deaths between 1 in 28 ■ Manchester, and 1 in 120 at Morton, is ■ prising. It ■ to show the unwholesomeness of the manufacturing life, owing perhaps to the confinement in small close rooms, ■ in larger with numbers, ■ to poverty and want of necessaries, or

■ drinking, or to all of them. Farmers who manufacture in their ■ families what they have occasion for and no more, are perhaps the happiest people and the healthiest.

'Tis ■ curious remark, that moist ■ the healthiest. The gentry of England ■ remarkably afraid of moisture, and of air. But seamen, who live in perpetually moist air, ■ always healthy, if they have good provisions. The inhabitants of Bermuda, St. Helena, and other islands far from continents, surrounded with rocks, against which the waves continually dashing, fill the air with spray and vapor, and where no wind can arrive that does not pass over much sea, and of course bring much moisture, these people are remarkably healthy. And I have long thought that mere moist air has no ill effect on the constitution; though air impregnated with vapors from putrid marshes is found pernicious, not from the moisture but the putridity. It ■ strange that ■ man, whose body is composed in great part of moist fluids, whose blood and juices are so watery, who can swallow quantities of water and small beer daily without inconvenience, should fancy that a little ■ less moisture in the air should be of such importance. But ■ abound in absurdity and inconsistency. Thus though it is generally allowed that *taking the air* is a good thing, yet what caution against air! what stopping of crevices! what wrapping up in ■ clothes! what stuffing of

doors and windows ! even in the midst of
 Many London families go out a day to take
 the air ; three or four persons in a coach, per-
 haps sick ; these go three or four miles, or many
 turns in Hyde Park, with the glasses both up close,
 all breathing over and over again the air they
 brought out of town with them in the coach, with
 the least change possible, and rendered worse and
 every moment. And this they call *taking*
the air. From many years observations on myself
 and others, I persuaded a wrong
 scent in supposing moist or cold air the of
 that disorder call a *cold* : some unknown qua-
 lity in the air may perhaps produce colds, as in the
influenza ; but generally I apprehend they are the
 effect of too full living in proportion to our
 cise. Excuse, if you can, my intruding into your
 province, and believe ever with sincere esteem,
 dear sir, your most obedient humble servant,

B. FRANKLIN.

ON LIGHTNING CONDUCTORS.

TO MR. WINTHROP.

London, July 25, 1773.

* * * * Your remark on the passage of Castil-
 lioneus will be read at the society at their next meet-
 ing. I thank you much for the papers and accounts of
 damage done by lightning, which you have favored

with. The conductors begin to be used here. Many country seats provided with them, churches, the powder magazines at Purfleet, the queen's house in the park, &c. and M. Le Roy, of the Academy of Sciences at Paris, has lately given a Memoir recommending the of them in that kingdom, which has been long opposed and obstructed by Abbé Nollet. Of the Duke of Tuscany he says, "Ce prince, qui connoît pas de délasement plus agréable des soins pénibles du gouvernement, que l'étude de la Physique, a ordonné, l'année dernière, qu'on établît de ces barres au-dessus de tous les magasins à poudre de Etats ; dit que la république de Venise a donné les mêmes ordres," &c. B. FRANKLIN.

OF THE STALLING OF WAVES BY MEANS OF OIL.

EXTRACTED FROM SUNDRY LETTERS BETWEEN DR. FRANKLIN, WILLIAM BROWNRIGG, M.D. F. R. S. AND THE REV. MR. FARISH.

Extract of a Letter from Dr. Brownrigg, to Dr. Franklin, dated Ormathwaite, January 27, 1773.

By the enclosed from an old friend, a worthy clergyman at Carlisle, whose great learning and extensive knowledge in most sciences would have more distinguished him, had he been placed in a conspicuous point of view, you will find, that

he had heard of your experiment [REDACTED] Derwent Lake, and has thrown together what he could collect [REDACTED] that subject; to which I have subjoined one experiment from the relation of another gentleman [REDACTED]

Extract of a Letter from the Rev. Mr. Farish to Dr. Brownrigg.

I SOME time ago met with Mr. Dun, who [REDACTED] prised me with an account of [REDACTED] experiment you had tried upon the Derwent water, in company with Sir John Pringle and Dr. Franklin. According to his representation, the water, which had been in a great agitation before, was instantly calmed upon pouring in only a very small quantity of oil, and that to so great a distance round the boat [REDACTED] seemed incredible. I have since had the same accounts from others, but I suspect all of a little exaggeration. Pliny mentions this property of oil [REDACTED] known particularly to the divers, who made [REDACTED] of it in his days, in order to have a [REDACTED] steady light at the bottom.¹ The sailors, I have been

Note by Dr. Brownrigg.

¹ [REDACTED] Gilfred Lawson, who served long in the army [REDACTED] Gibraltar, assures me, that the fishermen in that place [REDACTED] accustomed to pour a little oil [REDACTED] the [REDACTED] order to [REDACTED] its motion, [REDACTED] they may be enabled [REDACTED] oysters lying [REDACTED] its bottom, which

told, have observed something of the same kind in many days, that the water is always remarkably smoother, in the wake of a ship that has been newly tallowed, than it is in one that is foul. Mr. Pennant also mentions an observation of the like nature made by the seal-catchers in Scotland. *Brit. Zool.* Vol. iv. *Article* Seal. When these animals are devouring a very oily fish, which they always do under water, the seals above are observed to be remarkably smooth, and by this mark the fishermen know where to look for them. Old Pliny does not usually meet with all the credit I am inclined to think he deserves. I shall be glad to have an authentic account of the Keswick experiment; and if it agrees up to the representations that have been made of it, I shall not much hesitate to believe the old gentleman in another more wonderful phenomenon he relates of stilling a tempest only by throwing up a little vinegar into the air.

DR. FRANKLIN TO DR. BROWNRIGG.

DEAR SIR,

London, Nov. 7, 1773.

I thank you for the remarks of your learned friend at Carlisle: I had, when a youth, read and

seen there very large, and which they take up with a proper instrument. I have often seen performed, and practised on other parts of the Spanish coast.

smiled at Pliny's account of a practice among the seamen of his time, to the waves in a storm by pouring oil into the ; which he mentions, as well the use of oil by the divers ; but the stilling a tempest by throwing vinegar into the air had escaped me. I think with your friend, that it has been of late too much the mode to slight the learning of the ancients. The learned, too, apt to slight too much the knowledge of the vulgar. The cooling by evaporation was long instance of the latter. This art of smoothing the waves by oil is instance of both.

Perhaps you may not dislike to have an account of all I have heard, and learnt, and done in this way. Take it, if you please, as follows :

In 1757, being at in fleet of sail, bound against Louisbourg, I observed the wakes of two of the ships to be remarkably smooth, while all the others were ruffled by the wind, which blew fresh. Being puzzled with the differing appearance, I at last pointed it out to our captain, and asked him the meaning of it. "The cooks," says he, "have, I suppose, been just emptying their greasy water through the scuppers, which has greased the sides of those ships a little;" and this he gave with air of some little contempt, to person ignorant of what every body else knew. In my mind I at first slighted his solution, though I not able to think of another; but recollecting what I had formerly read in Pliny, I resolved to

make some experiment of the effect of oil on water, when I should have an opportunity.

Afterwards being again in 1762, I first observed the wonderful quietness of oil on agitated water, in the swinging glass lamp I made to hang up in the cabin, as described in my printed paper.¹ This I continually looking at and considering, its appearance to me inexplicable. An old sea captain, then a passenger with me, thought little of it, supposing it the effect of the same kind with that of oil put on water to smooth it, which he said was a practice of the Bermudians, when they would strike fish, which they could not see if the surface of the water was ruffled by the wind. This practice I had before heard of, and was obliged to him for the information; though I thought him mistaken as to the sameness of the experiment, the operations being different as well as the effects. In one case, the water is smooth till the oil is put on, and then becomes agitated. In the other it is agitated before the oil is applied, and then becomes smooth. The gentleman told me, he had heard it was a practice with the fishermen of Lisbon, when about to return into the river, (if they were before them too great a surf upon the bar, which they apprehended might fill their boats in passing,) to empty a bottle or two of oil into the sea, which would suppress the breakers, and allow

¹ See the preceding paper.

them to pass safely. A confirmation of this I have not since had ■ opportunity of obtaining ; but discoursing of it with another person, who had often been in the Mediterranean, I ■ informed, that the divers there, who, when under water in their business, need light, which the curling of the surface interrupts by the refractions of ■ many little waves, let ■ small quantity of oil now and then out of their mouths, which rising to the surface smooths it, and permits the light to ■ down to them. All these informations I at times revolved in my mind, and wondered to find no mention of them in our books of experimental philosophy.

At length being at Clapham, where there is, on the common, ■ large pond, which I observed one day to be very rough with the wind, I fetched out a cruet of oil, and dropped a little of it on the water. I ■ it spread itself with surprising swift- ■ upon the surface ; but the effect of smoothing the ■ not produced : for I had applied it first ■ the leeward side of the pond, where the ■ largest, and the wind drove my oil back upon the shore. I then went to the windward side, where they began to form ; and there the oil, though not more than a tea-spoonful, produced an instant calm over ■ space several yards square, which spread amazingly, and extended itself gradually till it reached the lee side, making

all that quarter of the pond, perhaps half an acre, as smooth as a looking-glass.

After this I contrived to take with me, when I went into the country, a little oil in the upper hollow joint of my bamboo cane, with which I might repeat the experiment on opportunity should offer; and I found it constantly to succeed.

In these experiments, one circumstance struck me with particular surprise. This was the sudden, wide, and forcibly spreading of a drop of oil on the face of the water, which I do not know that any body has hitherto considered. If a drop of oil is put on a highly polished marble table, or on a looking-glass that lies horizontally, the drop remains in its place, spreading very little. But when put on water, it spreads instantly many feet round, becoming so thin as to produce the prismatic colors, for a considerable space, and beyond them so much thinner as to be invisible, except in its effect of smoothing the surface at a much greater distance. It is as if a mutual repulsion between its particles took place as soon as it touched the water, and a repulsion so strong as to act on other bodies swimming on the surface, as straw, leaves, chips, &c. forcing them to recede every way from the drop, from its centre, leaving a large clear space. The quantity of force, and the distance to which it operates, I have not

yet ascertained ; but I think it a curious inquiry, and I wish to understand whence it arises.

In my journey to the north, when I had the pleasure of seeing you at Ormathwaite, we visited the celebrated Mr. Smeaton, Leeds. Being about to show him the smoothing experiment on a little pond near his house, an ingenious pupil of his, Mr. Jessop, then present, told me of an odd appearance on that pond, which had lately occurred to him. He was about to clean a little cup in which he kept oil, and he threw upon the water some flies that had been drowned in the oil. These flies presently began to move, and turned round in the water very rapidly, as if they were vigorously alive, though on examination he found they were not so. I immediately concluded that the motion was occasioned by the power of the repulsion above mentioned, and that the oil issuing gradually from the spongy body of the fly continued the motion. He found many more flies drowned in oil, with which the experiment was repeated before us. To show that it was not any effect of life recovered by the flies, I imitated it by little bits of oiled chips and paper cut in the form of a comma, of the size of a house fly ; when the stream of repelling particles issuing from the point made the comma turn round the contrary way. This is not a chamber experiment ; for it cannot be well repeated in a bowl or dish of

water on a table. A considerable surface of water is necessary to give room for the expansion of a small quantity of oil. In a dish of water, if the smallest drop of oil be let fall in the middle, the whole surface is presently covered with a thin greasy film proceeding from the drop; but when that film has reached the sides of the dish, no more will issue from the drop, but it remains in the form of oil, the sides of the dish putting a stop to its dissipation by prohibiting the farther expansion of the film.

Our friend, Sir John Pringle, being after in Scotland, learned there, that those employed in the herring fishery could at a distance see where the shoals of herrings were, by the smoothness of the water over them, which might possibly be occasioned, he thought, by some oiliness proceeding from their bodies.

A gentleman from Rhode Island told me, it had been remarked, that the harbor of Newport was ever smooth while any whaling vessels were in it: which probably arose from hence, that the blubber which they sometimes bring loose in the hold, the leakage of their barrels, might afford oil to mix with that water, which from time to time they pump out to keep their vessel free, and that some oil might spread over the surface of the water in the harbor, and prevent the forming of any waves.

This prevention I would thus endeavor ■ explain.

There ■■■■ to be ■ natural repulsion between water and air, such ■ to keep them from coming into contact with each other. Hence ■ find ■ quantity of air in water; and if ■ extract it by ■■■■ of the air-pump, the same water, again exposed to the air, will soon imbibe ■ equal quantity.

Therefore air in motion, which is wind, in passing over the smooth surface of water, may rub, ■ it were, upon that surface, and raise it into wrinkles, which if the wind continues, ■ the elements of future waves.

The smallest wave ■■■■ raised does not immediately subside, and leave the neighboring water quiet; but in subsiding raises nearly as much of the water next to it, the friction of the parts making little difference. Thus ■ stone dropped in ■ pool raises first ■ single wave round itself; and leaves it, by sinking to the bottom; but that first wave subsiding raises ■ second, the second a third, and so ■ in circles to ■ great extent.

A small power continually operating will produce ■ great action. A finger applied to ■ weighty suspended bell can at first ■■■■ ■ but little; if repeatedly applied, though with no greater strength, the motion increases ■ the bell swings ■ its utmost height, and with a force that cannot be

resisted by the whole strength of the arm and body. Thus the small first-raised waves, being continually acted upon by the wind, are, though the wind does not increase in strength, continually increased in magnitude, rising highly and extending their bases, ■ ■ to include ■ vast mass of water in each wave, which in its motion acts with great violence.

But if there be ■ mutual repulsion between the particles of oil, and ■ attraction between oil and water, oil dropped on water will not be held together by adhesion to the spot whereon it falls; it will not be imbibed by the water; it will be at liberty to expand itself; and it will spread on ■ surface that, besides being smooth to the most perfect degree of polish, prevents, perhaps by repelling the oil, all immediate contact, keeping it at ■ minute distance from itself: and the expansion will continue till the mutual repulsion between the particles of the oil is weakened and reduced to nothing by their distance.

Now I imagine that the wind, blowing over water thus covered with ■ film of oil, cannot easily catch upon it, so ■ to raise the first wrinkles, but slides over it, and leaves it smooth ■ it finds it. It ■ a little the oil indeed, which being between it and the water, ■ it to slide with, and prevents friction, as oil does between those parts of ■ machine, that would otherwise rub hard together. Hence the oil dropped on the wind-

ward side of a pond proceeds gradually to leeward, as may be seen by the smoothness it carries with it, quite to the opposite side. For the wind being thus prevented from raising the first wrinkles, that I call the elements of waves, cannot produce waves, which are to be made by continually acting upon, and enlarging those elements, and thus the whole pond is calmed.

Totally therefore we might suppress the waves in any required place, if we could suppress them at the windward place where they take their rise. This in the ocean can seldom if ever be done. But perhaps something may be done on particular occasions, to moderate the violence of the waves when we are in the midst of them, and prevent their breaking where that would be inconvenient.

For when the wind blows fresh, there are continually rising on the back of every great wave a number of small ones, which roughen its surface, and give the wind hold, as it were, to push it with greater force. This hold is diminished, by preventing the generation of those small waves. And possibly too, when a wave's surface is oiled, the wind, in passing over it, may rather in some degree press it down, and contribute to prevent it rising again, instead of promoting it.

This as my conjecture would have little weight, if the apparent effects of pouring oil into the midst of the waves were not considerable, and as yet not otherwise accounted for.

When the wind blows fresh, that the waves not sufficiently quick in obeying its impulse, their tops being thinner and lighter pushed forward, broken, and turned over in white foam. Common waves lift a vessel without entering it; but these when large sometimes break above and pour over it, doing great damage.

That this effect might in any degree be prevented, or the height and violence of waves in the moderated, had no certain account; Pliny's authority for the practice of seamen in his time being slighted. But discoursing lately this subject with his excellency Count Bentinck, of Holland, his son, the honorable Captain Bentinck, and the learned professor Allemand, (to all whom I showed the experiment of smoothing in a windy day the large piece of water at the head of the Green Park,) a letter mentioned, which had been received by the count from Batavia, relative to the saving of a Dutch ship in storm by pouring oil into the sea. I much desired to see that letter; and a copy of it promised me, which I afterward received, and is as follows:

Extract of a letter from Mr. Tegnagel to Count Bentinck, dated at Batavia, the 5th of January, 1770.

"Near the islands Paul and Amsterdam, we met with a storm, which had nothing particular in it worthy of being communicated to you, except

that the captain found himself obliged, for greater safety in wearing the ship, to pour oil into the sea, to prevent the waves breaking over her, which had an excellent effect, and succeeded in preserving her. As he poured out but a little at a time, the East India Company owes perhaps its ship to only six demi-ames of olive-oil. I was present upon deck when this was done; and I should not have mentioned this circumstance to you, but that we have found people so prejudiced against the experiment, as to make it necessary for the officers on board and myself to give a certificate of the truth on this head, of which we made no difficulty."

On this occasion, I mentioned to captain Bentinck, a thought which had occurred to me in reading the voyages of our late circumnavigators, particularly where accounts are given of pleasant and fertile islands which they much desired to land upon, when sickness made it necessary, but could not effect a landing through a violent surf breaking over the shore, which rendered it impracticable. My idea was, that possibly by sailing to and fro at some distance from such lee-shore, continually pouring oil into the sea, the waves might be so much depressed and lessened before they reach the shore, as to abate the height and violence of the surf, and permit a landing; which, in such circumstances, was a point of sufficient importance to justify the expense of the oil that

might be requisite for the purpose. That gentleman, who is ever ready to promote what may be of public utility, though his ■■■■ ingenious inventions have not always met with the countenance they merited, ■■■■ so obliging ■■■■ to invite me to Portsmouth, where ■■■■ opportunity would probably offer, in the course of ■■■■ few days, of making the experiment on some of the shores about Spithead, in which he kindly proposed to accompany me, and to give assistance with such boats ■■■■ might be necessary. Accordingly, about the middle of October last, I went with some friends to Portsmouth: and ■■■■ day of wind happening, which made a lee-shore between Hasler Hospital and the point near Jillkecker, we went from the Centaur with the long-boat and barge towards that shore. Our disposition was this: the long-boat was anchored about ■■■■ quarter of ■■■■ mile from the shore; part of the company ■■■■ landed behind the point, (a place more sheltered from the sea,) who ■■■■ round and placed themselves opposite to the long-boat, where they might observe the surf, and note if any change occurred in it upon using the oil. Another party, in the barge, plied to windward of the long-boat, ■■■■ far from her ■■■■ she was from the shore, making trips of about half a mile each, pouring oil continually out of a large stone bottle, through a hole in the cork, somewhat bigger than ■■■■ goose-quill. The experiment had not, ■■■■ main point, ■■■■ ■■■■ we wished, for

no material difference was observed in the height or force of the surf upon the shore; but those who were in the long-boat could observe a tract of smoothed water, the whole of the distance in which the barge poured the oil, and gradually spreading in breadth towards the long-boat. I call it smoothed, not that it was laid level; but because, though the swell continued, its surface was not roughened by the wrinkles, or smaller waves, before mentioned; and none or very few white caps (or waves whose tops turn over in foam,) appeared in that whole space, though to windward and leeward of it there were plenty; and a wherry, that came round the point under sail, in her way to Portsmouth, seemed to turn into that tract in preference, and to follow it from end to end, as a piece of turnpike-road.

It may be of use to relate the circumstances of an experiment that does not succeed, since they may give hints of an amendment in future trials: it is therefore I have been thus particular. I shall only add what I apprehend may have been the cause of our disappointment.

I conceive, that the operation of oil on water is, first, to prevent the raising of waves by the wind; and, secondly, to prevent its pushing those before raised with such force, and consequently their continuance of the same repeated height, as they would have done, if their surface were not oiled. But oil will not prevent waves being raised

by another power, by a stone, for instance, falling into a still pool ; for they then rise by the mechanical impulse of the stone, which the greasiness the surrounding water cannot lessen prevent, it can prevent the winds catching the surface and raising it into . Now waves once raised, whether by the wind or any other power, have the mechanical operation, by which they continue to rise and fall, a *pendulum* will continue to swing, a long time after the force ceases act by which the motion first produced : that motion will, however, cease in time ; but time is necessary. Therefore, though oil spread on an agitated sea may weaken the push of the wind on those waves whose surfaces are covered by it, and so, by receiving fresh impulse, they may gradually subside ; yet a considerable time, or a distance through which they will take time to move, may be necessary to make the effect sensible on any shore in a diminution of the surf : for we know, that when wind suddenly, the it has raised do not suddenly subside, but settle gradually, and not quite down till after the wind has ceased. So though should, by oiling them, take off the effect of wind on waves already raised, it is not to be expected that those waves should be instantly levelled. The motion they have received, will for time continue ; and if the shore is not distant, they arrive there soon, their effect upon it will not be visibly

diminished. Possibly, therefore, if we had begun our operations at a greater distance, the effect might have been more sensible. And perhaps we did not pour oil in sufficient quantity. Future experiments may determine this.

I was, however, greatly obliged to Captain Bunting, for the cheerful and ready aids he gave me and I ought not to omit mentioning Mr. Banks, Dr. Solander, General Cardac, and Dr. Blagden, who all assisted at the experiment, during that blustering unpleasant day, with a patience and activity that could only be inspired by a zeal for the improvement of knowledge, such especially we might possibly be of use to men in situations of distress.

I would wish you to communicate this to your ingenious friend, Mr. Farish, with my respects: and believe me to be, with sincere esteem, dear sir, your most obedient humble servant, B. FRANKLIN.

AN ATTEMPT TO EXPLAIN THE EFFECTS OF LIGHT-
NING ON THE VANE OF THE STEEPLE OF A
CHURCH IN CREMONA, AUGUST, 1777.

TO DR. JOHN INGENHAUSZ.

1. When the subtile fluid which we call fire or heat enters a solid body, it separates the particles of which that body consists farther from each other, and thus dilates the body, increasing its dimen-

2. A greater proportion of fire introduced separates the parts ■ far from each other that the solid body becomes a fluid, being melted.

3. A still greater quantity of heat separates the parts ■ far, that they lose their mutual attraction, and acquire ■ mutual repulsion, whence they fly from each other, either gradually or suddenly, with great force, ■ the separating power is introduced gradually ■ suddenly.

4. Thus ice becomes water, and water vapor, which vapor is said to expand to 14,000 times the space it occupied in the form of water, and with an explosive force in certain cases capable of producing great and violent effects.

5. Thus metals expand, melt, and explode. The two first effected by the gradual application of the separating power, and all three, in its sudden application by artificial electricity, or lightning.

6. That fluid in passing through a metal rod or wire is generally supposed to occupy the whole dimension of the rod. If the rod is smaller in some places than in others, the quantity of fluid which is not sufficient to make any change in the larger ■ thicker part, may be sufficient to expand, melt ■ explode the smaller, the quantity of fluid passing, being the same, and the quantity of matter less that is acted upon.

7. Thus the links of a brass chain, with a certain quantity of electricity passing through them have been melted in the small parts that form their contact while the rest have not been affected.

8. Thus a piece of tin ■■■ cut in this form, enclosed in a pack of cards, and having the charge of ■ large bottle sent through it, has been found unchanged in the broadest part between a and b, melted only in spots between c and d, and the part between d and e reduced to smoke by explosion. ◊ . .

9. The tin foil melted in spots between b and c, and that whole space not being melted, seems to indicate that the foil in the melted parts had been thinner than the rest, on which thin parts the passing fluid had therefore a greater effect.

10. Some metals melt ■■■ easily than others. Tin more easily than copper, copper than iron. It is supposed (perhaps not yet proved) that those which melt with the least of the separating power, whether that be common fire or the electric fluid, do also explode with less of that power.

11. The explosions of metal, like those of gunpowder, act in all directions. Thus the explosion of gold leaf between plates of glass breaking the glass to pieces, will throw those pieces into all parts of the room, and the explosion of iron ■ even of water between the joints of stone in ■ steeple, will scatter the stones in all directions round

the neighborhood. But the directions given to those stones by the explosion, is to be considered ■ different from the direction of the lightning which happened to occasion those explosions of the matter it met with in its passage between the clouds and the earth.

12. When bodies positively electrised approach sharp pointed rods or thin plates of metal, these are more easily rendered negative by the repulsive force of the electric fluid in those positively electrised bodies, which chases away the natural quantity contained in those mince rods or plates, though it would not have force enough to chase the same out of larger masses. Hence such points, rods and plates being in a negative state, draw to themselves more strongly and in greater quantities the electric fluid offered them, than such ■ can do which remain nearly in their natural state. And thus ■ pointed rod receives not only at its point, though more visibly there, but at all parts of its length that ■ exposed. Hence ■ needle held between the finger and thumb, and presented to ■ charged prime conductor, will draw off the charge ■ expeditiously if held near the eye, and the rest of its length is exposed to the electrical atmosphere, than if all but half an inch of the point is concealed and covered.

13. Lightning ■ differs from solid projectiles, and from common fluids projected with violence, that though its ■ is rapid, it is most easily

turned to follow the direction of good conductors. And it is doubted whether any experiments in electricity have yet decisively proved, that the electric fluid in its violent passage through the air where a battery is discharged has what we call **■** **■■■■■** tum, which would make it continue its course in a right line, though a conductor offered near that course to give it a different, **■** **■■■** contrary direction; **■** that it has a force capable of pushing forward, **■** overthrowing the objects it strikes against, even though it sometimes pierces them. Does not this **■■■■** to indicate that the perforation is not made by the force of **■** projectile passing through, but rather by the explosion or the dilatation in passing, of **■** subtile line of fluid?

14. Such an explosion **■** dilatation of a line of fluid passing through a card, would raise burrs round the hole sometimes on one side, sometimes **■** the other, and sometimes **■** both, according to the disposition of the part of the paper **■■■■** the surface, without any regard to the direction of the fluid.

15. Gret thanks **■■■** due to the ingenious philosopher who examined the vane **■** Cremona, and who took the pains to describe so exactly the effects of the lightning upon it, and to **■■■■■** nicate that description. The fact is extremely curious. It is well worth considering. He invites to that consideration. **■■■** has fairly given his own opinion. **■■■** will **■■■** candor receive that of

others, though it may happen to [redacted] from his own. By calmly discussing rather than by [redacted] ly disputing, the truth is most easily obtained. I shall give my opinion freely, [redacted] it is asked, hoping it may prove the true one; and promising myself if otherwise, the honor at least of acknowledging frankly my error, and of being thankful to him who kindly shews it to [redacted].

16. By the account given of this stroke of lightning upon the steeple of Cremona, it appears that the rod of iron [redacted] spindle on which the vane turned was of about two inches circumference, terminating in [redacted] cross above the vane, and its lower end fixed in [redacted] marble pedestal.

17. That the plate of the vane [redacted] copper, eight or nine inches wide, and near twice [redacted] long. That it [redacted] about [redacted] line thick [redacted] the spindle, and growing thinner insensibly towards the other end, where its thickness did not exceed three quarters of a line, the weight $20\frac{1}{2}$ ounces.

18. That the copper had been tinned over.

19. That the marble pedestal [redacted] split by the stroke into many pieces, and scattered [redacted] the roof, garden, and court of [redacted] neighboring building. One piece [redacted] thrown to the distance of 40 feet. The spindle [redacted] broken and displaced, and the [redacted] thrown on the roof of the parsonage house [redacted] feet from the steeple.

20. That the vane was perforated in 18 places, the [redacted] of irregular forms, [redacted] [redacted] metal which

had filled them pushed outwards in [redacted] of them [redacted] side of the vane, in others on the other. The copper shewed marks of having been partly melted, and in [redacted] places tin and copper melted and mixed together. There were marks of smoke in several places.

21. The ragged parts bent outwards round each hole, being brought back to their original flat position, [redacted] not, though evidently a little thinned and dilated, sufficient to [redacted] the place.

22. From the effects described (19,) it is clear that the quantity of lightning which fell on this steeple at Cremona was very great.

23. The vane being a thin plate of copper, its edges and corners may be considered as a series of points, and being therefore sooner rendered negative by the repulsive force of an approaching positive cloud than the blunt and thick iron cross, (12,) [redacted] probably first struck; and thence became the conductor of that great quantity.

24. The plate of which the vane was formed being thicker [redacted] the spindle, and diminishing in thickness gradually to the other end, (17,) was probably not of copper plated by passing between rollers, for they would have left it of equal thickness; but of metal plated by the hammer. The surface too of rolled copper is [redacted] and plain, that of hammered is generally uneven, with hollows occasioned by the impressions of the hammer.

25. In those concave impressions the metal is

thinner than it is around them, and probably thinnest the centre of each impression.

26. The lightning which in passing through the vane was not sufficient to melt its thicker parts, might be sufficient to melt the thinner, (6, 7, 8, 9,) and to soften those that were in middle state.

27. The part of the tin (18,) which covered the thinner parts being easily melted and exploded than copper, (10,) might possibly be exploded when the copper but melted. The smoke appearing in several places, (20,) is proof of explosion.

28. There might probably be more tin in the concave impressions of the hammer on side of the plate, than on the convex part of those impressions on the other. Hence stronger explosions the concave side.

29. The nature of those explosions is to act violently in all directions ; and in this case being near the plate they would act against it one side, while they acted against the air the other.

30. These thin parts of the plate being at the instant partly in fusion, and partly softened as to be it ; the softened parts pushed outwards, hole made, and of the melted parts blown away ; hence there not left metal enough to refill the vacancy by bending back the ragged parts to their places.

31. The impressions of the hammer being indifferently made on both sides of the plate,

it is natural from 28, 29, 30, that the pushing outwards of the softened metal by explosions, should be ■ both sides of the plate nearly equal:

■ That the force of a simple electrical explosion is very great, appears from the Geneva experiment, wherein a spark between two wires, under oil in a drinking glass, breaks the glass, body, stem, and foot, all to shivers.

33. The electric explosion of metal acts with still ■ force. A strip of leaf gold no broader than ■ straw, exploded between two pieces of thick looking-glass, will break the glass to pieces, though confined by the screws of a strong press. And between two pieces of marble pressed together by a weight of ■ pounds, will ■ that weight. Much less force is necessary to ■ the melted and softened parts of ■ thin plate of copper.

34. This explication of the appearances ■ the vane, is drawn from what we already know of electricity and the effects of lightning. The learned author of the account gives ■ different but very ingenious one, which he draws from the appearances themselves. The matter pushed out of the holes is found, that of some on ■ side of the plate, and of others on the other. Hence he supposes them to be occasioned (if I understand him right) by streams or threads of electric matter of different and contrary kinds, rushing violently towards each other, and meeting with the vane, ■ accidentally placed, as ■ be found precisely in the

place of their meeting, where it XXXX pierced by all of them, they all striking XXXX both its sides at the same instant. . This however is so extraordinary an accident, XXXX to be in the authors own opinion almost miraculous, " Passeranno (says he) forse piu secoti prima que ritorni tralle infinite combinazioni XXXX XXXX similé XXXX quello della banderuola che XXXX abbiamo per XXXX. Forza é que si esaurisca una non piu udita miniera difulmini sopra XXXX grande citta, pressoque seminata di campanili e di banderuole, il che XXXX rarissimo ; e può ancora volti cio succedere, XXXX che s'incontri giammai un altera, banderuola tanto opportunamente situata tra i limiti della fulminea esplosione."

35. But though the author's explication of these appearances of the XXXX does not satisfy me, I XXXX not so confident of my own XXXX to propose its being accepted without confirmation by experiment. Those who have strong electric batteries may try it thus: form a little XXXX of paper, and spot it on both sides by attaching small pieces of leaf gold or tin foil, not exactly opposite to each other: then send the whole force of the battery through the vane, entering at XXXX end of it and going out at the other. If the metal explodes, I imagine it will be found to make holes in the paper, forcing the torn parts out XXXX the sides opposite to the metal. A XXXX expensive but perhaps XXXX satisfactory experiment would be, XXXX make XXXX XXXX as exactly as possible like XXXX in question, in all the

particulars of its description, and place it ■ a tall mast fixed on ■■■■ hill subject to strokes of lightning, with ■ better conductor to the earth than the wood of the mast; if this should be struck in the course of a few years, and the same effects appear upon it, it would be still more miraculous to suppose it happened by accident to be exactly situated where those crossing threads of different electricities were afterwards to meet.

36. The perforation of glass bottles when overcharged is, I imagine, ■ different case, and not explicable by either of these hypothesis. I cannot well suppose the breach to be occasioned by the passage of electricity through it, since ■ single bottle, though ■ broken in the discharge, always is found to send round in its usual course the quantity with which it ■■ charged. Then the breach ■■■ happens but at the instant of the circuitous discharge, either by the discharging rod, or in overleaping the borders of the glass. Thus I have been present when a battery of twenty glasses ■■ discharged by the discharging rod, and produced the same effect in its circuit as if none of the bottles had been pierced; and yet on examining them, we found no less than twelve of them in that situation. Now all the bottles of the battery being united by ■ communication of all the outsides together, and of all the insides together, if ■■ of them had been pierced by ■ forced passage of the different kinds of electricity to meet each other, before the dis-

charge by the discharging rod, it would not only have prevented the passage of the electricity by the common circuit, but it would have saved all the rest of its fellows, by conducting the whole through its own breach. And it is not easy to conceive that 12 bottles in ■■■ should be ■■ equally strong ■■ to support the whole strength of their charge, till the circuit of their discharge ■■■ opened, and then be so equally weak as to break altogether when the weight of that charge ■■■ taken off from them by opening the circuits. At ■■■ other time I will give you my opinion of this effect if you desire it.

I have taken the account of this stroke of lightning from an Italian piece, intituled *Analisi d'un ■■■ fenomeno del fulmine*, the dedication of which is subscribed *Carlo Barletti delle Sacole Pic*, who I suppose is the author. As I do not perfectly understand that language, I may possibly in some things have mistaken that philosopher's meaning. I therefore desire, my dear friend, that you would not permit this to be published, till you have compared and considered it with that original piece, and communicated to me your remarks and corrections. Nor would I in any ■■■ have it appear with my name, as perhaps it may occasion disputes, and I have ■■ time to attend to them.

ON ELECTRICITY.

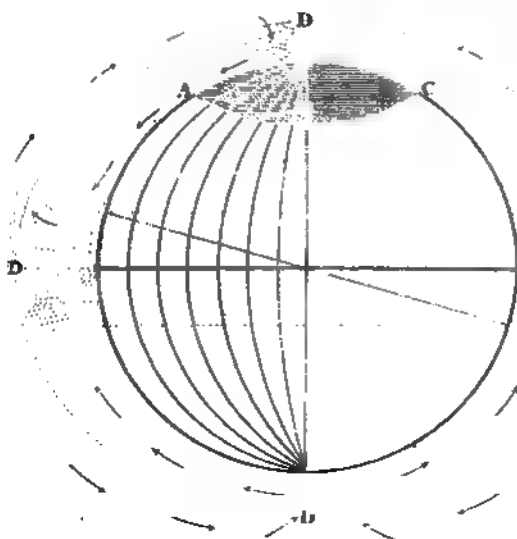
THE LEYDEN BOTTLE, AND M. VOLTA'S
EXPERIMENT.

To ■ ■ * ■ ■ *.

Paris, 1778.

I THANK you for the account you give me of M. Volta's experiment. You judge rightly in supposing that I have not much time at present to consider philosophical matters; but ■ far as I understand it from your description, it is only another form of the Leyden Phial, and explicable by the same principles. I must however own myself puzzled by one part of your account, viz. "and thus the electric force once excited may be kept alive years together," which is perhaps only a mistake. I have known it indeed to be continued many months in ■ phial hermetically sealed, and suppose it may be so preserved for ages; but though ■ may, by repeatedly touching the knob of a charged bottle with ■ small insulated plate, like the upper one of the electrophore, draw ■ incredible number of sparks successively, that is, one after every touch, and those for ■ while not apparently different in magnitude, yet at length they will become small, and the charge be finally exhausted. But I am in the wrong to give my opinion till I have seen the experiment.

I like much your pasteboard machine, and think it may, in ■ respects, be preferable to the ver-



*The Arrows represent the general Currents of the Air.
 A.B.C. the great Cake of Ice & Snow in the Polar Regions.
 D.D.D.D. the Medium Height of the Atmosphere.
 The Representation is made only for one Quarter and one
 of the Globe; is to be understood the same
 for all the rest.*



See: Heat

large glass constructed here. The Duke de Chaulnes has one, said, if I remember right, to be five feet in diameter. I tried it, but it happened not to be in order. B. F.

AURORA BOREALIS.

Suppositions and Conjectures towards forming an Hypothesis for its Explanation, 1779.

1. AIR heated by any means becomes rarefied and specifically lighter than other air in the same situation not heated.

2. Air being thus made lighter rises, and the neighboring cooler heavier air takes its place.

3. If in the middle of a room you heat the air by a stove, or pot of burning coals on the floor, the heated air will rise to the ceiling, spread there over the cooler air till it comes to the cold walls; there being condensed and made heavier, it descends to supply the place of that cool air which had moved towards the stove or fire, in order to supply the place of the heated air which had ascended from the space around the stove or fire.

4. Thus there will be a continual circulation of air in the room, which may be rendered visible by making a little smoke; for that smoke will rise and circulate with the air.

5. A similar operation is performed by nature on the air of the globe. Our atmosphere is of a certain height, perhaps a medium [] miles.

Above that height it is so rare as to be almost a vacuum. The air heated between the tropics is continually rising, and its place is supplied by northerly and southerly winds which come from those cool regions.

6. The light heated air floating above the cooler and denser, must spread northward and southward, and descend at the two poles, to supply the place of the cooler air which had moved towards the equator.

7. Thus a circulation of air is kept up in the atmosphere in the room above mentioned.

8. That heavier and lighter air may move in currents of different and opposite directions, appears sometimes by the clouds that happen to be in these currents, as plainly as by the smoke in the experiment above mentioned. Also in opening a door between two chambers, one of which has been warmed, by holding a candle at the top, near the bottom, and at the middle, you will find a strong current of warm air passing out of the warmed chamber above, and another of cool air entering it below, while in the middle there is little or no motion.

9. The great quantity of vapor rising between the tropics forms clouds, which contain much electricity.

Some of them fall in rain, before they come to the polar regions.

10. If the rain be received in an isolated vessel,

the vessel will be electrified ; for every drop brings down some electricity with it.

11. The is done by snow and hail.

12. The electricity so descending in temperate climates, is received and imbibed by the earth.

13. If the clouds are not sufficiently discharged by this means, they sometimes discharge themselves suddenly by striking into the earth, where the earth is fit to receive their electricity.

14. The earth in temperate and warm climates is generally fit to receive it, being **■** good conductor.

15. A certain quantity of heat will make some bodies good conductors that will not otherwise conduct.

16. Thus wax rendered fluid, and glass softened by heat, will both of them conduct.

17. And water, though naturally **■** good conductor, will not conduct well when frozen into ice by **■** common degree of cold ; not at all where the cold is extreme.

18. Snow falling upon frozen ground has been found to retain its electricity ; and to communicate it to an isolated body, when after falling, it **■** been driven about by the wind.

19. The humidity contained in all the equatorial clouds that reach the polar regions, must there be condensed and **■** in snow.

■ The great cake of ice that eternally **■** those regions may be too hard frozen to permit the

electricity, descending with that snow, to enter the earth.

21. It will therefore be *accumulated upon that ice*.

22. The atmosphere being heavier in the polar regions, than in the equatorial, will there be lower; ■ well from that cause, as from the smaller effect of the centrifugal force: consequently the distance to the vacuum above the atmosphere will be less at the poles than elsewhere; and probably much less than the distance (upon the surface of the globe) extending from the pole to those latitudes in which the earth is so thawed ■ to receive and imbibe electricity; the frost continuing to lat. 80., which is 10 degrees or 600 miles from the pole, while the height of the atmosphere there of such density as to obstruct the motion of the electric fluid, ■■ scarce be estimated above [] miles.

23. The *vacuum* above is ■ good conductor.

24. May not then the great quantity of electricity brought into the polar regions by the clouds, which ■■ condensed there, and fall in snow, which electricity would enter the earth, but cannot penetrate the ice; may it not, I say (*as ■ bottle overcharged*) break through that low atmosphere and run along in the vacuum over the air towards the equator, diverging ■ the degrees of longitude enlarge, strongly visible where densest, and becoming less visible as it more diverges; till it finds ■ passage to the earth in more temperate climates, or is mingled with their upper air?

25. If such an operation of nature really performed, would it not give all the appearances of an AURORA BOREALIS?

26. And would not the auroræ become frequent *after the approach of winter*; not only because more visible in longer nights; but also because in the long presence of the sun may soften the surface of the great ice cake, and render it a conductor, by which the accumulation of electricity in the polar regions will be prevented?

27. The atmosphere of the polar regions being made more dense by the extreme cold, and all the moisture in that air being frozen, may not any great light arising therein, and passing through it, render its density in some degree visible during the night-time, to those who live in the rarer air of more southern latitudes? and would it not in that case, although in itself a complete and full circle, extending perhaps ten degrees from the pole, appear to spectators so placed, (who could see only a part of it) *in the form of a segment*, its chord resting on the horizon, and its arch elevated less above it as from latitudes more or less distant, *darkish in color*, but yet sufficiently *transparent* to permit some stars to be seen through it?

28. The rays of electric matter issuing out of a body, diverge by mutually repelling each other, unless there be a conducting body to receive them; and if a conducting body be at a

greater distance, they will *first diverge*, and then *converge* in order to enter it. May not this account for some of the varieties of figure at times in the *motions* of the luminous matter of the auroræ; since it is possible, that in passing the atmosphere, from the north, in all directions meridians, towards the equator, the rays of luminous matter may find, in many places portions of cloudy region, moist atmosphere under them, which (being in the natural or negative state) may be to receive them, and towards which they may therefore converge; and when one of those receiving bodies is more than saturated, they may *again* diverge from it, towards other surrounding masses of such humid atmosphere, and thus form the *crowns*, as they are called, and other figures mentioned in the histories of this meteor?

29. If it be true that the clouds which go to the polar regions carry thither the vapors of the equatorial and temperate regions, which vapors are condensed by the extreme cold of the polar regions, and fall in snow or hail; the winds which come from those regions ought to be generally dry, unless they gain some humidity by sweeping the clouds in their way; and if I mistake not, the winds between the north-west and north-east are, for the most part dry, when they have continued some time.*

* In one of the copies of this paper there is a drawing across the article

[In the Philosophical Transactions for 1774, p. 122, is a letter from Mr. J. S. Winn, to Dr. Franklin, stating, that since he had first made the observation concerning the south or south-west winds succeeding an aurora, he had found it invariably obtaining in twenty-three instances; and he adds in a note a fresh confirming instance. In reply, Dr. Franklin makes the following conjecture.]

The *boreales*, though visible almost every night of clear weather in the northern regions, and very high in the atmosphere, scarce be visible in England but when the atmosphere is pretty clear of clouds for the whole space between and those regions; and therefore are seldom visible there. This extensive clearness may have been produced by a long continuance of northerly winds. When the winds have long continued in one quarter the return is often violent. Allowing the fact so repeatedly observed by Mr. Winn, perhaps this may account for the violence of the southerly winds that follow the appearance of the aurora on our coasts.

ON A NEW INVENTED STOVE.¹

TO THE MARQUIS TURGOT.

Passy, 1st May, 1781.

I DID intend, when in London, to have pub-

¹ See Plate IV.

lished a pamphlet, describing the new stove you mention, and for that purpose had a plate engraved, of which I send you an impression. But I have since been too much engaged in affairs to execute that intention. Its principle is that of a siphon reversed, operating on air in a somewhat similar to the operation of the common siphon on water. The funnel of the chimney is the longer leg, the vase is the shorter: and, in the reversed siphon, the weight of water in the longer leg is greater than that in the shorter leg; and thus in descending permits the water in the shorter leg to rise, by the pressure of the atmosphere; so in this aerial siphon, the levity of the air in the longer leg being greater than that in the shorter, it rises and permits the pressure of the atmosphere to force that in the shorter to descend. This causes the smoke to descend also, and in passing through burning coals, it is kindled into flame, thereby heating more the passages in the iron box whereon the grate which contains the coals is placed; and retarding at the same time the consumption of the coals. On the left hand of the engraving you see the machine put together and placed in a niche built for it in a chimney. On the right hand the parts (except the vase) are shown separately. If you should desire a particular explanation, I will give it to you *viva voce*, whenever you please. I think with you that it is capable of being used to advantage in our kitchens, if

one could overcome the repugnance of cooks to the using of instruments and methods.

With great respect, I have the honor to be, &c.

B. FRANKLIN.

**LONG RETENTION OF INFECTION IN
BODIES AFTER SEPULTURE, &c.**

TO MONS. VICO D'AZYR.

SIR,

Passy, July 20, 1781.

I RECEIVED the letter you some time since did me the honor of writing to me, accompanied with a number of the pieces that were distributed at the last public meeting of the Royal Society of Medicine. I shall take care to forward them to different parts of America, as desired. Be pleased to present my thanks to the society for the copy sent of the curious and useful reports relating to the sepulture in the island of Malta. I should be glad of another copy, if it be spared, being desirous of sending to each of the philosophical societies in America.

With respect to the length of time during which the power of infection may be contained in dead bodies, which is considered in that report, I would mention to you three facts, which, though not all of equal importance or weight, yet methinks it may be well to preserve a memorandum of them, that such observations may be made when occasion

offers, are proper confirm invalidate them.

While I resided in England, I read in a newspaper, that in a country village at the funeral of a woman whose husband had died of the small-pox 30 years before, and whose grave was dug so as to place her by his side, the neighbors attending the funeral were offended with the smell arising out of the grave, occasioned by a breach in the husband's old coffin, and 25 of them were in a few days taken ill with that distemper, which before was not in that village its neighborhood, nor had been for the number of years above mentioned.

About the years 17 or 1764, several physicians of London, who had been present from curiosity at the dissection of an Egyptian mummy, soon after taken of a malignant fever, of which they died. Opinions were divided on this question. It was thought by some that the fever was caused by infection from the mummy; in which the disease it died of must have been embalmed as well as the body. Others who considered the length of time, at least 2000 years, since that body died, and also that the embalming must be rather supposed to destroy the power of infection, imagined the illness of these gentlemen must have had another original.

About the year 1773, the captain of a ship which had been on the island of Teneriffe, brought from

thence the dried body of one of the ancient inhabitants of that island, which must have been at least 300 years old, that custom of drying the dead there having been so long discontinued. Two members of the Royal Society went to see that body. They were half an hour in a small close room with it, examining it very particularly. The next day they were both affected with a singularly violent *cold*,¹ attended with uncommon circumstances, which continued a long time. On comparing together the particulars of their disorder, they agreed in suspecting that possibly some effluvia from the body might have been the occasion of that disorder in them both: perhaps they were mistaken. But as we do not yet know with certainty how long the power of infection may in such bodies be retained, it is well in such cases to be cautious till farther light shall be obtained.

I wish it were in my power to contribute essentially in advancing the good work the society is so laudably engaged in. Perhaps some useful hints may be extracted from the enclosed paper of Mr. Small's.* It is submitted to your judgment; and if you should find any thing in it worthy of being communicated to the society, and of which extracts may be useful if printed in the

* Cold is a general ailment given by the English of rheums and catarrhs.

² See OF VENTILATION--Writings, IV.

memoirs, it will be a pleasure to me ; who am, with great esteem and respect, sir, &c.

B. FRANKLIN.

P. S. July 24. Since writing the above, I have met with the following article in the *Courier de l'Europe* of the 13th inst. viz.

Extrait d'une lettre d'Edimbourg, ■ date du 30 Juin.

■ J'apprends par ■■ personne qui vient de Montrose, que la fièvre épidémique qui s'est manifestée il y ■ quelque tems dans le Méarns, désole encore aujourd'hui ce voisinage avec tant de violence qu'un de ses amis ■ été invité à assister à 15 enterremens dans un seul jour. On dit que cette maladie doit son origine à la folle curiosité de quelques paysans, qui, à la Chandeleur dernière, exhumèrent quelques personnes mortes de la peste dans le siècle précédent, et qu'on avoit enterrées dans le Moss de *Arnhall*. Ce qui est arrivé à la famille de M. Robert Aikenhead est singulièrement malheureux : vers le milieu du mois dernier il ■ été attaqué de cette contagion, et elle s'est communiquée au reste de ■■ famille consistant en neuf personnes, dont deux sont mortes ainsi que lui, et le reste n'est pas ■■ danger."

[Translation.]

Extract of ■ letter from Edinburgh, dated June 30.

" I understand by a person just returned from

Montrose, that the epidemic fever which has made its appearance in the county of Mearns, ravages that neighborhood with such violence, that ■■■ of his friends ■■■ invited to attend fifteen funerals ■■■ the ■■■ day. It is said that this malady originated in the ill-judged curiosity of some country people, who, at Candlemas last, opened the graves of ■■■ persons who had died of the plague in the preceding century, and who had been buried in the Moss of Arnhall. The circumstances which have happened in the family of Mr. Robert Aikenhead are singularly unfortunate: about the middle of last month he took the infection, which was communicated to the rest of his family, consisting of nine persons; two of whom, together with himself, ■■■ dead, and the others not out of danger."

ON CONDUCTORS OF HEAT, &c.

TO DR. INGENHAUSZ.

Passy, Oct. 2, 1781.

It is ■ long time, my dear friend, since I have had the pleasure of writing to you. I have postponed it too often from a desire of writing ■ good deal ■ various subjects, which I could not find sufficient time to think of properly. Your experiments ■ *the conducting of heat* ■ one subject; the finishing my *remarks on the stroke of lightning*

*in Italy** another; then I was taken ill with a severe fit of the gout soon after you left us, which held me near three months, and put my business and correspondence so far behind-hand, that I was long in getting it up again. Add to this, that I find indolence increases with age, and that I have not the activity I formerly had. But I cannot afford to lose your correspondence, in which I have always found so much pleasure and instruction: I now force myself to write, and I fancy this letter will be long.

I have now before me your several favors of Dec. 5, 1780, Feb. 7, April 7, May 23, and Aug. 29, 1781. I was glad to find by the first, that you enjoyed a good state of health, and that you had leisure to pursue your philosophical inquiries. I wish you that continued success which much industry, sagacity, and exactness in making experiments, have a right to expect. You will have much immediate pleasure by that success, and in time great reputation. But for the present the reputation will be given grudgingly, and in small quantity possible, mixed too with some mortification. One would think that a man so laboring disinterestedly for the good of his fellow-creatures, could not possibly by such means make himself enemies; but there are minds who cannot

* See—*Attempt to explain the effects of Lightning on the Steeple of Cremona.* WRITINGS, IV.

bear that another should distinguish himself by greater usefulness; and though he demands no profit, nor any thing in return but the good-will of those he is serving, they will endeavor to deprive him of that, first by disputing the truth of his experiments, then their utility, and being defeated there, they finally dispute his right to them, and would give the credit of them to a man that lived 1000 years ago, or at 100 leagues distance, rather than to a neighbor or even a friend. Go on, however, and do not be discouraged. Others have met with the same treatment before you, and will after you. And whatever some may think and say, it is worth while to do men good, for the self-satisfaction one has in the reflection.

Your account of the experiments you made with the wires, gave me a great deal of pleasure: I have shown it to several persons here, who think it exceedingly curious. If you should ever repeat those experiments, I wish your attention to one circumstance. I think it possible, that in dipping them into the wax, and taking them out suddenly, the metal which attracts heat most readily, may chill and draw out with it a thicker coat of wax; and this thicker coat might, in the progress of the experiment, be longer melting. They should therefore be kept so long in the wax, as to be all well and equally heated. Perhaps you may thus find the progress of heat in the silver quicker and greater. I think, also, that if the hot oil in which

you dipped the ends not stagnant, but in motion, the experiment would be complete, because the wire which quickest diminishes the heat of the oil next to it, finds soonest the difficulty of getting more heat from the oil farther distant, which depends the nature of the oil conductor of heat, that which is already cooled interfering between the hotter oil and the wire. In reversing the experiment also, to try which of the metals cools fastest, I think the wires should be dipped in *running* cold water; for when stagnant, the hot wires, by communicating heat to the water that is near them, will make it less capable of receiving more heat; and the metals which communicate their heat most freely and readily will soonest warm the water round them, the operation of such metals may therefore soonest stop,—not because they naturally longer withhold their heat, but because the water them is not in a state to receive it. I do not know that these hints founded; I suggest them only meriting a little consideration. Every is surprised that the progress of the heat seems to have no connexion with the gravity or the levity of the metals.

B. FRANKLIN.

AN ACCOUNT OF TOADS

FOUND ENCLOSED IN THE SOLID ■ A STONE QUARRY.

AT Passy, near Paris, April 6, 1782, being with M. De Chaumont, viewing his quarry, he mentioned to me, that the workmen had found a living toad shut up in the stone. On questioning ■ of them, he told us they had found four in different cells which had no communication: that they were very lively and active when set at liberty: that there was in each cell some loose, soft, yellowish earth, which appeared to be very moist. We asked, if he could show ■ the parts of the stone that formed the cells? He said no; for they were thrown among the rest of what was dug out, and he knew not where to find them. We asked, if there appeared any opening by which the animal could enter? He said, no, not the least. We asked if, in the course of his business ■ a laborer in quarries, he had often met with the like? He said, never before. We asked, if he could show ■ the toads? He said, he had thrown two of them up on a higher part of the quarry, but knew not what became of the others. He then ■ up to the place where he had thrown the two, and finding them, he took them by the foot, and threw them up to us, upon the ground where we stood. One of them was quite dead, and appeared very lean: the other was plump and still living. The

part of the rock where they were found, is at least fifteen feet below its surface, and is a kind of limestone. A part of it is filled with ancient sea shells, and other marine substances. If these animals have remained in this confinement since the formation of the rock, they are probably thousands of years old. We have put them in spirits of wine, to preserve their bodies a little longer. The workmen have promised to call us if they meet with any more, that we may examine their situation. Before a suitable bottle could be found to receive them, that which was living when we first had them, appeared to be quite dead and motionless; but being in the bottle, and the spirits poured over them, he flounced about in it very vigorously for two or three minutes, and then expired.

It is observed that animals who perspire but little, live long without food; such are tortoises, whose flesh is covered with a thick shell, and snakes, who are covered with scales, which are of so close a substance as scarcely to admit the passage of perspirable matter through them. Animals that have open pores all over the surface of their bodies, and live in air which takes off continually the perspirable part of their substance, naturally require a continual supply of food to maintain their bulk. Toads shut up in solid stone, which prevents their losing any thing of their substance, may perhaps for that reason need no sup-

ply ; and being guarded against all accidents, and all the inclemencies of the air and changes of the seasons, are, it seems, subject ■ ■ diseases, and become as it ■ ■ immortal. B. F.

[*The following copy of a letter from Sir John Pringle to Mr. A. Small, ■ ■ annexed to the above account, in Dr. F.'s papers.*]

TO MR. SMALL.

SIR,

Minorca, April 25, 1780.

Last year ■ had the honor to inform you, that two of those large moths called Muskitoe Hawks, which appear about September, and disappear ■ ■ beginning of December, lived 71 days after ■ had cut ■ ■ heads off with a pair of scis-

■ ■ last autumn ■ made ■ ■ same experiment upon several, keeping them under separate glasses, in a closet, where there ■ ■ no fire. The most of them lived different periods, from 3, ■ 60 and 70 days. Those which exceeded that number of days, ■ ■ four, viz. ■ ■ from the 30th of October to the 21st of January, ■ ■ days ; one from the 12th of December ■ ■ 21st of April, 131 days ; and ■ ■ from the 24th of October ■ the 15th of April, 174 days. As they are very active, and covered with a sort of plumage, which makes it difficult to cut their heads off, without bruising or otherwise injuring the body, ■ imagine that may partly be ■ ■ reason of their living different periods ; and if, after the operation, any glutinous liquor proceeded from ■ ■ body, that moth would die ■ ■

I put several under glasses, without cutting ■ ■ their heads, ■ ■ of which lived many days.

I am, sir, with great esteem, your ■ ■ obedient and ■ ■
 ■ ■ servant, (Signed) JOHN PRINGLE.

QUERIES III ELECTRICITY,

From Dr. Ingenhausz ; with Answers by Dr. Franklin.

Question 1.

If the electrical fluid is truly accumulated on the inside of a Leyden phial, and expelled in the same proportion from the other side, why are the particles of glass not all thrown outwards, when the phial being overcharged, breaks or is perforated by a spontaneous explosion ?

Answer.

By the circumstances that have appeared to me, in all the jars that I have perforated at the time of their explosion, I have imagined that the charge did not pass by those perforations. Several single jars that have broke while I was charging them, have shown, besides the perforation in the body, a trace on both sides of the neck, where the polish of the glass was taken off the breadth of a straw ; which proved that great part at least of the charge, probably all, had passed over that trace. I was once present at the discharge of a battery containing thirty jars, of which eight were perforated and spoilt at the time of the discharge, yet the effect of the charge on the bodies upon which it was intended to operate, did not appear to be diminished. Another time I was present

when twelve out of twenty jars were broken at the time of the discharge, yet the effect of the charge which passed in the regular circuit, ■■■ the ■■■ as it would have been if they had remained whole. Were those perforations an effect of the charge within the jar forcing itself through the glass to get at the outside, other difficulties would arise, and demand explanation. 1. How it happens that in eight bottles, and in twelve the strength to bear ■ strong charge should be ■ equal, that ■ one of them would break before the rest, and thereby save his fellows; but all should burst at the same instant? 2. How it happens that they bear the force of the great charge till the instant that an easier means of discharge is offered them, which they make use of, and yet the fluid breaks through at the same time?

My conjecture is, that there has been in the place where the rupture happens, some defect in the glass, ■■■ grain of sand perhaps, or some little bubble in the substance nearly void, where during the charging of the jar, the electric fluid forced in and confined till the pressure is suddenly taken off by the discharge, when not being able to escape ■ quickly, it bursts its way out by its elastic force. Hence all the ruptures happen nearly at the ■■■ instant with the regular discharge, though really ■ little posterior, not being themselves discharges, but the effects of ■ discharge which passed in another channel.

Question 2.

When a strong explosion is directed through a pack of cards or a book, having a piece of tin foil between several of its leaves, the electrical flash makes an impression in some of those metallic leaves, by which it seems as if the direction of the electric explosion had gone from the outside towards the inside, when on the other metallic leaves, the impression is in such a direction, that it indicates the current of electrical fire to have made its way from the inside of the phial towards the outside; so that it appears to some electricians, that in the time of the explosion of an electrical phial, two streams of electrical fire rush at the same time from both surfaces, and meet or cross another.

Answer.

These impressions are not effects of a moving body, striking with force in the direction of its motion; they are made by the burrs rising in the neighboring perforated cards, which rise accidentally sometimes on one side of a card, sometimes on the other, in consequence of certain circumstances in the form of their substances and situations. In a single card, supported without touching others, while perforated by the passing fluid, the burr generally rises on both sides, as I once

shewed ■ Mr. Symmer at his house. I imagine that the hole is made by a fine thread of electric fluid ■■ passing, and augmented to a bigger thread ■ the time of the explosion, which obliging the parts of a card to recede every way, condenses a part within the substance, and forces ■ part out on each side, because there is least resistance.

Question 3.

When a flash of lightning happens to hit a flat piece of metal, the metal has sometimes been pierced with several holes, whose edges ■■■ turned some the one way and some the other, ■ that it has appeared to ■■■ philosophers that several streams of electrical fire had rushed in one way, and some the opposite way. Such an effect of lightning has been published lately by Father Barletti.

Answer.

This will be answered in my remarks on Mr. Barletti's book ; which remarks when finished, I will send you.

Question 4.

Though from the very charging of the Leyden phial, it ■■■■ clear, that the electrical fluid does in reality not pervade the substance of glass, yet it is ■■■ difficult to conceive how such a subtile fluid may be forced out from one side of ■ very thick

pane of glass, by a similar quantity of electrical fire thrown upon the other surface, and yet that it does not pass through any substance of glass, however thin, without breaking it. Is there any other fact or illustration besides those to be found in your public writings, by which it may be made more obvious to our understanding, that electrical fire does not enter at all the very substance of glass, and yet may force from the opposite surface an equal quantity; or that it really enters the pores of the glass without breaking it? Is there any comparative illustration or example in nature, by which it may be made clear, that a fluid thrown upon one surface of any body, may force out the same fluid from the other surface without passing through the substance?

Answer.

That the electric fluid, by its repulsive nature, is capable of forcing portions of the electric fluid out of bodies without entering them itself, appears from this experiment. Approach an isolated body with a rubbed tube of glass; the side next the tube will then be electrised negatively, the opposite positively. If a pair of cork balls hang from that opposite side, the electrical fluid forced out of the body will appear in those balls, causing them to diverge. Touch that opposite side, and you thereby take away the positive electricity. Then remove the tube, and you leave the body all in a

negative state. Hence it appears, that the electric fluid appertaining to the glass tube did not enter the body, but retired with the tube, otherwise it would have supplied the body with the electricity it had lost.

With regard to *powder magazines*, my idea is, that to prevent the mischief which might be occasioned by the stones of their walls flying about in case of accidental explosion, they should be constructed in the ground; that the walls should be lined with lead, the floor lead, all a quarter inch thick, and the joints well soldered; the cover copper, with a little scuttle, to enter the whole in the form of a canister for tea. If the edges of the cover-scuttle fall into a copper channel containing mercury, not the smallest particle of air or moisture can enter to the powder, even though the walls stood in water, or the whole was under water.

ON THE THEORY OF ■■■■ EARTH, AND ITS MAGNETISM.

TO THE ABBE SOULAVIE.

[Occasioned by his sending ■■■ some notes he had taken of what I had said to him in conversation on the Theory of the Earth, and written ■■■ him right in some points wherein ■■■ mistaken my meaning.]

B. F.

SIR,

Passy, September 22, 1782.

I return the papers with ■■■■ corrections. I did not find coal mines under the calcareous rock

in Derbyshire. I only remarked, that the lowest part of that rocky mountain which was in sight, there were oyster shells mixed in the stone; and part of the high county of Derby being probably much above the level of the sea, as the coal mines of Whitehaven were below it, it seemed a proof that there had been a great *bouleversement* in the surface of that island, some part of it having been depressed under the sea, and other parts, which had been under it, being raised above it. Such changes in the superficial parts of the globe, seemed to be unlikely to happen, if the earth were solid to the centre. I therefore imagined, that the internal parts might be a fluid more dense, and of greater specific gravity than any of the solids we are acquainted with, which therefore might swim in or upon that fluid. Thus the surface of the globe would be a shell, capable of being broken and disordered by the violent movements of the fluid on which it rested. And as air has been compressed by art to be twice as dense as water, in which if such air and water could be contained in a strong glass vessel, the air would be seen to take the lowest place, and the water to float above and upon it; and we know not yet the degree of density to which air may be compressed, and Amontons calculated, that its density increasing as it approached the centre, in the same proportion as above the surface, it would at the depth of leagues be heavier than gold; possibly the dense

fluid occupying the internal parts of the globe might be air-compressed. And as the force of expansion in dense air when heated, is in proportion to its density, this central air might afford another agent to move the surface, as well as be of use in keeping alive the subterraneous fires; though, as you observe, the sudden rarefaction of water coming into contact without those fires, may also be an agent sufficiently strong for that purpose, when acting between the incumbent earth and the fluid in which it rests.

If one might indulge imagination in supposing how such a globe might be formed, I should conceive, that all the elements in separate particles being originally mixed in confusion, and occupying a great space, they would (as well as the Almighty fiat ordained gravity, and the mutual attraction of certain parts, and the mutual repulsion of others, to exist) all tend to their common centre: that the air being a fluid whose parts repel each other, though drawn to the common centre by their gravity, would be densest towards the centre, and become as more remote; consequently all matters lighter than the central parts of that air, and immersed in it, would recede from the centre, and rise till they arrived at that region of the air which was of the same specific gravity with themselves, where they would rest; while other matter, mixed with the lighter air, would descend, and the two meeting, would form the shell of the first earth,

globe being ~~now~~ become a perfect magnet, we are, perhaps, safe from any change of its axis. But ~~we~~ are still subject to the accidents on the surface, which are occasioned by a ~~change~~ in the internal ponderous fluid ; and such a ~~change~~ is producible by the sudden violent explosion you mention, happening from the junction of water and fire ~~under~~ the earth, which not only lifts the incumbent earth that is ~~over~~ the explosion, but impressing with the ~~same~~ force the fluid under it, creates a wave, that may ~~run~~ a thousand leagues, lifting, and thereby shaking, successively, all the countries under which it passes. I know not, whether I have expressed myself so clearly, ~~as~~ not to get out of your sight in these reveries. If they occasion any ~~such~~ inquiries, and produce a better hypothesis, they will not be quite useless. You ~~say~~ I have given a loose to imagination ; but I approve much ~~of~~ your method of philosophising, which proceeds upon actual observation, makes a collection of facts, and concludes ~~no~~ further than those facts will warrant. In my present circumstances, that mode of studying the nature of the globe is out of my power, and therefore I have permitted myself to wander a little in the wilds of fancy. With great esteem, I have the honor to be, sir, &c.

B. FRANKLIN.

P. S. I have heard, that chemists can by their art decompose ~~any~~ ~~kind~~ wood, extracting a consi-

~~From~~ quantity of water from the one, and air ~~from~~ the other. It seems natural to conclude from this, that water and air were ingredients in their original composition: for men cannot make ~~any~~ ~~matter~~ of any kind. In the ~~case~~ ~~of~~ ~~these~~ may we not suppose, that when ~~the~~ ~~combustibles~~ combustibles of all kinds, and produce heat or light, ~~they~~ do not ~~create~~ that heat or light; but only decompose a substance, which received it originally as a part of ~~its~~ composition? Heat may be thus considered ~~as~~ originally in a fluid state; but attracted by organised bodies in their growth, becomes a part of the solid. Besides this, I ~~can~~ conceive, that in the ~~case~~ assemblage of the particles of which this earth is composed, each brought its portion of the loose heat that had been connected with it, and the whole, when pressed together, produced the internal fire that still subsists.

ON AN ELECTRICAL EXPERIMENT.

TO DR. INGENHAUSE.

Passy, May 16, 1782.

I AM glad you have made the experiments you mention, ~~with~~ with success. You will find ~~that~~ ~~the~~ holes are ~~made~~ made by ~~the~~ impulse of ~~the~~ fluid moving in certain directions, but by circumstances of explosion of parts of the matter; ~~and~~ I still think my explanation of the holes ~~in~~ the vane pro-

bable, viz. that it was the explosion of tin against parts of the copper-plate that was almost in a state of fusion, and therefore easily burst through either on one side or the other, as it happened. The bursting of the glass bottles all at once, I take to be owing to small bubbles in the substance of the glass, or grains of sand, into which a quantity of the electric fluid had been forced and compressed while the bottles were charging; and when the pressure was suddenly taken off by discharging the bottles, that confined portion by its elastic force expanding caused the breach. My reasons for thinking that the charge did not pass by those holes you will find in a former letter; and I think you will always find that the coating within and without is forced both ways by the explosion of these bubbles.

B. FRANKLIN.

ON THE SHOCK BY THE ELECTRIC BOTTLE, AND
THE DENSITY OF GLASS.

To * * * *

SIR, *Passy, June 14, 1783.*

I received some time since your letter you honored me with, containing your hypothesis for explaining the shock given by the electric bottle, which you were so desirous to desire my opinion. It is many years since I was engaged in those pleasing studies, and my mind is at present too much occupied

with other and more important affairs to permit my returning to them. I cannot therefore examine your ingenious hypothesis with the attention it appears to merit. You will find in a letter of mine to Dr. Lining, dated March 18, 1775, that I abandoned my hypothesis of the greater density of glass in the middle than at its surfaces, thus contributing to produce the effect, because I found the effect to be the same after I had ground that part away. And I think you might likewise try yours by an easy experiment. Take a plate of lead twelve inches square, cover one of its sides with a coat of bees' wax about one line thick; upon that apply closely a thin plate of lead eight inches square, so as to leave a margin of two inches all round. Electrify this composition of lead and wax, and try if you can receive a shock from it; if not, you may draw thence a further argument to support your hypothesis, because the wax, though a non-conductor, is not elastic, any more than pure lead. I am you are endowed with a genius for the study of nature, and I would recommend it to you to employ your time rather in making experiments than in making hypothesis and forming imaginary systems, which are all too apt to please ourselves with till some experiment comes, and unluckily destroys them. Wishing you success in your inquiries, I have the honor to be, sir, &c.

F. FRANKLIN.

TO MR. EDWARD NAIRNE.

On his Patent Electrical Machine, and the Effects of Lightning on the Eyes, &c. of Animals killed by it.

DEAR SIR,

Passy, Oct. 18, 1783.

I received your favor of August 14, by Mr. Sykes, with the book of directions for using your patent electric machine. The machine itself is also to hand in good order, after some delay on the road; and I think it very ingeniously contrived indeed: I wish your success in the sale may be equal to its merits. The experiments in your pamphlet gave me pleasure, and I shall be glad to see the account you mention of the shortening of wires by lightning.

What you have heard of the eyes of sheep forced out by a stroke of lightning which killed them, puts me in mind of having formerly at Philadelphia six horses all killed by lightning in a stable, every one of whom appeared to have bled at the eyes, nose, and mouth; though I do not recollect that any of their eyes were out.

You are too good to consider how much my time has been taken up, and to insist on that account my being a bad correspondent. Near three years ago I began a letter to you on the subject of hygrometers. I had written three folio pages of it when I was interrupted by some business; and before I had time to finish I had mislaid it.

have found it, and having added what I suppose I had intended to add, I enclose it. You can judge better than myself whether my idea of an instrument is practicable and may be useful.

If you favor with another line, let me know how Mrs. Nairne does, and your amiable children. With great esteem, &c. I am, **B. FRANKLIN.**

[Enclosed in the foregoing.]

**PROPOSAL FOR A SLOWLY SENSIBLE HYGROMETER
FOR CERTAIN PURPOSES.**

TO MR. NAIRNE.

SIR, *Passy, near Paris, Nov. 13, 1780.*

THE qualities hitherto sought in a hygrometer, an instrument to discover the degree of moisture and dryness in the air, to have been an aptitude to receive humidity readily from a moist air, and to part with it as readily to a dry air. Some substances have been found to possess more or less of this quality; but when we shall have found the substance that has it in the greatest perfection, there will still remain an uncertainty in the conclusions to be drawn from the degree shown by the instrument, arising from the actual of the instrument itself as to heat and cold. Thus if two bottles or vessels of glass or metal being filled, the one with cold, the other with hot water, are brought into a room, the moisture of the air the

room will attach itself in quantities to the surface of the cold vessel, while if you actually wet the surface of the hot vessel, the moisture will immediately quit it, and be absorbed by the air. And thus in a sudden change of the air from cold to warm, the instrument remaining longer cold may condense and absorb moisture and mark the air as having become humid, than it is in reality ; and the contrary is a change from warm to cold.

But if such a suddenly changing instrument could be free from those imperfections, yet when the design is to discover the different degrees of humidity in the air of different countries, I apprehend the quick sensibility of the instrument to be rather a disadvantage ; since to draw the desired conclusions from it, a constant and frequent observation day and night in each country will be necessary for a year or years, and the result of each set of observations is to be found and determined. After all which, uncertainty will remain respecting the different degrees of exactitude with which different persons may have made and taken notes of their observations.

For these reasons I apprehend that a substance though capable of being distended by moisture and contracted by dryness, is so slow in receiving and parting with its humidity, that the frequent changes in the atmosphere have not time to effect it sensibly, and which therefore should gradually take

nearly the medium of those changes and pre- it constantly, would be the most proper substance of which to make such an hygrometer.

Such an instrument you, my dear sir, though without intending it, have made for me; and I, without desiring or expecting it, have received from you. It is therefore with propriety that I address to you the following account of it, and the more you have both a head to contrive and a hand to execute the of perfecting it. And I do this with greater pleasure, it affords me the opportunity of renewing that ancient correspondence and acquaintance with you, which to me was always so pleasing and so instructive.

You may possibly remember that in or about the year 1758, you made for a set of artificial magnets, six in number, each $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches long, $\frac{1}{2}$ an inch broad, and $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch thick. These with two pieces of soft iron, which together equalled of the magnets, were enclosed in a little box of mahogany wood, the grain of which with, and not the length of the box, and the box was closed by a little shutter of the wood, the grain of which across the box, and the ends of this shutting piece bevelled to and slide in a kind of dovetail groove when the box was to be shut or opened.

I have been of opinion that good mahogany wood not affected by moisture so to change dimensions, that was always to be found

as the tools of the workmen left it. Indeed the difference in different times in the same country is so small as to be scarcely in any way observable. Hence the box which I made as to allow sufficient room for the magnets to slide in and out freely, and when it afforded them so much play that by shaking the box I could make them strike the opposite sides of the box alternately, continued in the same state all the time I remained in England, which was four years, without any apparent alteration. I left England in August 1762, and arrived at Philadelphia in October the same year. In a few weeks after my arrival, being desirous of showing your magnets to a philosophical friend, I found them so tight in the box, that it was with difficulty that I got them out, and constantly during the two years I remained there, viz. till November 1764, the difficulty of getting them out and in continued. The little shutter too, as wood does not shrink lengthways of the grain, was found too long to enter its grooves, and not being used was mislaid and lost, and I afterwards had another made that fitted.

In December 1764, I returned to England, and after some time I observed that my box was become so big enough for my magnets, and too wide for my new shutter; which was much too short for its grooves, that it was apt to fall out; and to make it keep in, I lengthened it by adding to each end a coat of sealing-wax.

I continued in England more than ten years, and during that time, after ~~the~~ ~~the~~ change, I perceived no alteration. The magnets ~~had~~ the same freedom in their box, and the ~~the~~ shutter continued with the added sealing-wax to ~~the~~ its grooves, till some weeks after my second return to America.

As I could not imagine any other ~~reason~~ for ~~the~~ change of dimensions in the box when in the different countries, I concluded first generally that the air of England ~~was~~ moister than that of America. And ~~the~~ I supposed the effect of its being ~~an~~ island, where every wind that blows must necessarily pass ~~the~~ ~~the~~ before it arrived, and of course lick up ~~the~~ vapor. I afterwards indeed doubted whether I had not been too general in my conclusion; and whether it might not be just only ~~as~~ far as related to the city of London, where I resided; because there ~~are~~ many causes of moisture in the city air, which do not exist to the ~~same~~ degree in the country; such as the brewers' and dyers' boiling cauldrons, and the great number of pots and tea-kettles continually on the fire, sending forth abundance of vapor; and also the number of animals who by their breath constantly increase it; to which may be added that even the vast quantity of sea-coals burnt there, in kindling discharge a great deal of moisture.

When I was in England the last time, you also made ~~me~~ ~~a~~ ~~the~~ achromatic pocket telescope. The body was brass, and ~~a~~ ~~a~~ a round case (I

think of thin wood) covered with shagreen. All the while I remained in England, though possibly there might be some small changes in the dimensions of this case, I neither perceived nor suspected any. There was always comfortable room for the telescope to slip in and out. But after I arrived in America, which was in May, 1775, the case became too small for the instrument, it was with much difficulty and various contrivances that I got it out, and I could not after get it in again during my stay there, which was eighteen months. I brought it with me to Europe, but left the case as useless, imagining that I should find the continental air of France as dry as that of Pennsylvania, where my magnet-box had also returned a second time to its narrowness, and pinched the pieces as heretofore, obliging me, too, to scrape the sealing-wax off the ends of the shutter.

I had not been long in France before I was surprised to find that my box was become as large as it had always been in England, the magnets entered and went out with the same freedom; and when in I could rattle them against its sides; this has continued to be the case without sensible variation. My habitation is out of Paris, distant almost a league, so that the moist air of the city cannot be supposed to have much effect upon the box: and I am on a high dry hill, as likely to be dry as any air in France. Whence it seems probable, that the air of England in general may, as well as that of

London, be moister than the air of America, since that of France is so, and in a part so distant from the sea.

The greater dryness of the air in America appears from several other observations. The cabinet-work formerly sent from London, which consisted in thin plates of fine wood, glued upon fir, never would stand with us, the veneering, on those plates was called, would get loose and fall off; both woods shrinking, and their grains often crossing, they were for ever cracking and flying. And in my electrical experiments there, it was remarkable, that a mahogany table on which my jars stood under the prime conductor to be charged, would often be very dry, particularly when the wind had been some time at N. W., which with us is a very drying wind, as to isolate the jars, and prevent their being charged till I had formed a communication between their coatings and the earth. I had a like table in London, which I used for the same purpose all the time I resided there; but it was never very dry as to refuse conducting the electricity.

Now what I beg leave to recommend to you is, that you would recollect, if you can, the species of mahogany of which you made my box, for you know there is a great deal of difference in woods that go under that name; or if that cannot be, that you would take a number of pieces of the finest and closest-grained mahogany that you can meet with, plane them to the thinness of about a line,

and the width of about two inches [redacted] the grain; and fix each of the pieces in [redacted] instrument that you [redacted] contrive, which will permit them to contract and dilate, and will show in sensible degrees by a moveable hand upon a marked scale, the otherwise less sensible quantities of such contraction and dilatation. If these instruments are all kept in the [redacted] place while making, and [redacted] graduated together while subject to the same degrees of moisture or dryness, I apprehend you will have so many comparable hygrometers, which being sent into different countries, and continued there for some time, will find and show there the mean of the different dryness and moisture of the air of those countries; and that with much less trouble than by any other hygrometer hitherto in use.

With great esteem, I am, dear sir, your most obedient and most humble servant,

B. FRANKLIN.

ON THE COMET SEEN IN YORKSHIRE, 1783.

TO MR. RITTENHAUSE, PHILADELPHIA.

SIR,

Passy, Dec. 15, 1783.

ALL astronomical news that I receive, I [redacted] it my duty to communicate to you. The following [redacted] just come to hand, in a letter from [redacted] President of the Royal Society, [redacted] at London the [redacted] instant.

"A miserable comet made its appearance to Mr. Nathan Pigot, in his observatory at York-shire, on the 19th past, and the weather has been so hazy in the evenings that it has ~~never~~ been observed since. It ~~was~~ ~~seen~~ the 19th

	h.	m.	Right Ascen.	Decl. Dec.
" at 11	15		41 0 0	10'
" On the 20th	10	54	40 0 0	32

"On the 21st it was ~~seen~~ in the place where it ~~was~~ expected; but the night ~~was~~ too hazy to observe it.

"It appears like a nebula, with a diameter of about two minutes of a degree; the nucleus faint. It is ~~seen~~ with difficulty when the wires of the instrument ~~are~~ illuminated, but is not visible with ~~an~~ open glass."—Mr. Pigot.

"Nov. 29th. It ~~was~~ ~~seen~~ ~~near~~ the chin of Aries, and appeared like a nebulous star: as there was ~~any~~ moon-light, it was difficult to find it.

"Dec. 1st. It ~~was~~ removed ~~from~~ the preceding eye of Aries; but conceiving other astronomers, who had fixed instruments, have noted its place, he has not calculated the distance from any known star."—Mr. Herschell.

With great esteem, I have the honor to be, &c.

B. FRANKLIN.

ON BALLOONS, ■■■ THEIR PROBABLE
IMPORTANCE.

To DR. INGENHAUSZ.

DEAR FRIEND, *Passy, Jan. 16, 1784.*

I HAVE this day received your favor of the ■ instant. Every information in my power respecting the balloons ■ ■■■ you just before Christmas, contained in copies of my letters to Sir Joseph Banks. There is no secret in the affair, and I make no doubt that ■ person coming from you would easily obtain a sight of the different balloons of Mongolfier and Charles, with all the instructions wanted: and if you undertake to make one, I think it extremely proper and ■■■ sary to send ■ ingenious ■■■ here for that purpose; otherwise, for want of attention to some particular circumstance, or of not being acquainted with it, the experiment might miscarry, which, in an affair of ■ much public expectation, would have bad consequences, draw upon you a great deal of censure, and affect your reputation. It is a serious thing to draw out from their affairs all the inhabitants of ■ great city and its environs, and ■ disappointment makes them angry. At Bourdeaux, lately, a person who pretended to send up a balloon, and had received money from many people, not being able to make it rise, the populace were ■ exasperated that they pulled down his house, and had like to have killed him.

It appears, ■ you observe, to be ■ discovery of great importance, and what may possibly give ■ ■ turn to human affairs. Convincing sovereigns of the folly of wars, may perhaps be one effect of it; since it will be impracticable for the most potent of them to guard his dominions. Five thousand balloons capable of raising two ■ each could not cost more than five ships of the line: and where is the prince who can afford ■ to cover his country with troops for its defence, ■ that ten thousand men descending from the clouds might not in many places do an infinite deal of mischief, before a force could be brought together to repel them? It is a pity that any natural jealousy should, as you imagine it may, have prevented the English from prosecuting the experiment, since they are such ingenious mechanicians, that in their hands it might have made ■ rapid progress towards perfection, and all the utility it is capable of affording. The balloon of Messrs. Charles and Robert ■ really filled with inflammable air. The quantity being great, it ■ expensive, and tedious filling, requiring two or three days and nights constant labor. It had ■ *soupape*, or valve, ■ the top, which they could open by pulling ■ string, and thereby let out some air when they had ■ mind to descend; and they discharged ■ of their ballast of sand when they would rise again. A great deal of air must have been let out when they landed, so that the loose part might envelope

one of them; yet the car being lightened by that getting out of it, there was enough left to carry up the other rapidly. They had no with them. That is used only in M. Mongolfier's globe, which is open at bottom, and straw constantly burnt to keep it up. This kind is cheaper filled; but must be of much greater dimensions to carry up the weight; since air rarefied by heat is only twice as light as common air, and inflammable air ten times lighter. Mons. Morveau, a famous chemist at Dijon, has discovered an inflammable air that will cost only a part of the price of what is made by oil of vitriol poured on iron filings. They say it is made from sea-coal. Its comparative weight is not mentioned. I am ever, my dear friend, yours most affectionately,

B. FRANKLIN.

ON FIRE.

To B. VAUGHAN.

MY FRIEND, *Passy, April 29, 1784.*

I RECEIVED your kind letters of the 16th and instant. I thank you for your philosophical We have here. I see your philosophers are in the way of finding out at last what fire is. I have long been of opinion that it exists everywhere in the state of a subtile fluid. That much of that fluid in our bodies gives us the sensation we call heat; a little, cold. Its vibra-

tions, light. That all solid fluid substances which inflammable have been composed of it; their dissolution in returning to their original state, we call fire. This subtile fluid is attracted by plants and animals in their growth, and solidated. Is attracted by other substances, thermometers, &c. &c., variously; has a particular affinity with water, and will quit many other bodies to attach itself to water, and go off with it in evaporation. Adieu. Yours most sincerely,

B. F.

METEOROLOGICAL IMAGINATIONS AND CONJECTURES.

May, 1784.

THERE seems to be a region high in the air over all countries, where it is always winter, where frost exists continually; since in the midst of summer the surface of the earth ice falls often from above, in the form of hail.

Hail-stones of the great weight sometimes find them, did not probably acquire their magnitude before they began to descend. The air being 400 times rarer than water, is unable to support it but in the shape of vapor, a state in which its particles are separated. As soon as they are condensed by the cold of the upper regions to form a drop, that drop begins to fall. If it freezes into a grain of ice, that ice descends. In descend-

ing, both the drop of water and the grain of ice are augmented by particles of the vapor they pass through in falling, and which they condense by their coldness, and attach to themselves.

It is possible that in summer, much of what is rain when it arrives at the surface of the earth, might have been snow when it began its descent; but, being thawed in passing through the warm air near that surface, is changed from snow into rain.

How immensely cold must be the original particle of hail, which forms the centre of the future hail-stone, since it is capable of communicating sufficient cold, if I may so speak,¹ to freeze all the mass of vapor condensed round it, and form a lump of perhaps six or eight ounces in weight!

When in summer-time the sun is high, and long every day above the horizon, his rays strike the earth more directly and with longer continuance than in winter; hence the surface is more heated, and to a greater depth, by the effect of those rays.

When rain falls on the heated earth, and soaks down into it, it carries down with it a great part of the heat, which by that means descends still deeper.

The mass of earth, to the depth perhaps of 30

¹ If I may so speak, because perhaps it is so by communicating cold to the particles of vapor that it freezes them, by depriving them of their heat.

feet, being thus heated to a certain degree, continue to retain its heat for some time. Thus the first snows that fall in the beginning of winter, seldom lie long on the surface, but are melted and absorbed. After which, the winds that blow over the country on which the snow had fallen, are not rendered so cold as they would have been by those snows, if they had remained. The earth, too, thus uncovered by the snow, which would have reflected the sun's rays, now absorbs them, receiving and retaining the warmth they afford. And thus the approach of the severity of winter is retarded; and the extreme degree of its cold is not always at the time one might expect it, viz. when the sun is at his greatest distance and the days the shortest, but some time after that period, according to the English proverb, which says,

As the day lengthens,
The cold strengthens;

the causes of refrigeration continuing to operate, while the sun returns too slowly, and his force continues too weak, to counteract them.

During several of the months of the year 1783, when the effect of the sun's rays to heat the earth in these northern regions should have been greatest, there existed a constant fog over all Europe. This fog was of a permanent nature; it was dry, and the rays of the sun seemed to have little effect towards dissipating it, as they easily do a moist fog arising from water. They

were indeed rendered so faint in passing through it, **■** when collected in the focus of a burning-glass they would **■** kindle brown paper; of course their **■** effect in heating the earth **■** exceedingly diminished.

Hence the surface was early frozen.

Hence the first **■** remained on it unmelted, and received continual additions.

Hence the air **■** more chilled, and the winds more severely cold.

Hence perhaps the winter of 1783-4 **■** more severe than any that had happened for many years.

The **■** of this universal fog is not yet ascertained. Whether **■** was adventitious to this earth, and merely **■** smoke proceeding from the consumption by fire of some of those great burning balls **■** globes which **■** happen to meet with in **■** rapid course round the sun, and which are sometimes **■** to kindle and be destroyed in passing **■** atmosphere, and whose smoke might be attracted and retained by our earth; or, whether it **■** the vast quantity of smoke long continuing to issue during the **■** from Hecla in Iceland, and that other volcano which **■** out of the **■** near that island, which smoke might be spread by various winds over the northern part of the world, is yet uncertain.

■ seems, however, worth the inquiry, whether other hard winters recorded in history, were preceded by similar permanent and widely-extended

fogs. Because, if found men might from such fogs conjecture the probability of succeeding hard winter, and of the damages to be expected by the breaking up of frozen rivers at the approach of spring, and take such measures as possible and practicable to remove themselves and effects from the mischiefs that attended the last.

PHYSICAL AND METEOROLOGICAL CONJECTURES,
OBSERVATIONS AND SUPPOSITIONS. 1756.

THE particles of air are kept at a distance from each other by their mutual repulsion.

Even these particles mutually and equally repelling each other, must form an equilateral triangle.

All the particles of air gravitate towards the earth, which gravitation compresses them, and shortens the sides of the triangles: otherwise their mutual repellency would force them to greater distances from each other.

Whatever particles of other matter (not endued with that repellency) are supported in air, must adhere to the particles of air, and be supported by them; for in the vacancies there is nothing they can

Air and water mutually attract each other. Hence water will dissolve in air, as salt in water.

The specific gravity of matter is not altered by

dividing the matter, though the superficies may be increased. Sixteen leaden bullets of ■■■■ each, weigh ■■ much in water ■■ one of ■ pound, whose superficies is less.

Therefore the supporting of salt in water is not owing to its superficies being increased.

A lump of salt, though laid at rest at the bottom of a vessel of water, will dissolve therein, and its parts ■■■■ every way till equally diffused in the water; therefore there is a mutual attraction between water and salt. Every particle of water assumes as many of salt as ■■ adhere to it; when more is added, it precipitates and will not remain suspended.

Part of a fluid having ■■■■ of what it dissolves, will communicate to other parts that have less. This very salt water coming in contact with fresh, communicates its saltness till all is equal, and the sooner if there is but ■ little motion of the water. Even earth will dissolve and mix with air. A stroke of ■ horse's hoof in ■ hot dusty road, will raise ■ cloud of dust, that shall expand every way till perhaps near as big as a common house. 'Tis not by mechanical motion communicated to the particles of dust, by the hoof, that they fly ■ far, ■■ by the wind that they spread wide: but the air near the ground ■■■■ heated by the hot dust struck into it is rarefied and rises, and in rising mixes with cooler air, and communicates of its dust to it, and 'tis at length ■■ diffused ■■ to

become invisible. Quantities of dust ■■■ thus carried up in dry seasons ; showers wash it from the air, and bring it down again. For water attracting it stronger, it quits the air and adheres to the water.

Air suffering continual changes in the degrees of its heat, from various ■■■■ and circumstances, and consequently changes in its specific gravity, must therefore be in continual motion.

Water in the ■■■■ manner will dissolve in air, every particle of air assuming one or more particles of water ; when too much is added, it precipitates in rain.

But there not being the ■■■■ contiguity between the particles of air ■ of water, the solution of water in air is not carried ■ without a motion of the air, so as to cause a fresh accession of dry particles.

A small quantity of fire mixed with water, ■ degree of heat therein, so weakens the cohesion of its particles, that those ■ the surface easily quit it, and adhere to the particles of air.

A greater degree of heat is required to break the cohesion between water and air.

Air moderately heated will support ■ greater quantity of water invisibly than cold air ; for its particles being by heat repelled to ■ greater distance from each other, thereby ■■ easily keep the particles of water that ■ annexed to them from running into cohesions that would obstruct, reflect, or refract the light.

Hence when we breathe in warm air, though the great quantity of moisture may be taken up from the lungs we when we breathe in cold air, yet the moisture is not visible.

Water being extremely heated, i. e. to the degree of boiling, the particles in quitting it repel each other so to take up vastly more space than before, and by that repellency support themselves, expelling air from the space they occupy. That degree of heat being lessened, they again mutually attract, and having no air-particles mixed to adhere to, by which they might be supported and kept at a distance, they instantly fall, coalesce, and become water again.

The water commonly diffused in the atmosphere, receives such a degree of heat from the sun or otherwise, as water has when boiling; it is not therefore supported by such heat, but by adhering to air.

Water being dissolved in and adhering to air, that air will not readily take up oil, because of the natural repellency between water and oil.

Hence oils evaporate but slowly, the air having generally a quantity of dissolved water.

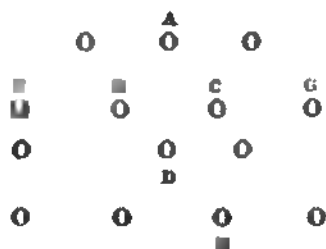
Oil being heated extremely, the air that approaches its surface will be also heated extremely; the water then quitting it, will attract and carry off oil which will adhere to it. Hence the quick evaporation of oil heated to a degree.

Oil being dissolved in air, the particles which it adheres will not take up water.

Hence the suffocating nature of air impregnated with burnt grease, as from snuffs of candles and the like. A certain quantity of moisture should be every moment discharged and taken away from the lungs; air that has been frequently breathed, is already overloaded, and for that can take more, so will not the end. Greasy air refuses to touch it. In both suffocation for want of the discharge.

As air will attract and support many other substances, a particle of air loaded with adhering water, or any other matter, is heavier than before, and would descend.

The atmosphere supposed at rest, a loaded descending particle must act with a force the particles it passes between meets with, sufficient to overcome in degree their mutual repellency, and push them nearer to each other.



Thus, supposing the particles A B C D, and the others them, to be the distance caused by their mutual repellency, (confined by their gravity,) if A would descend to E, it must pass

between B and C: when II is between ■ and C, it will be ■■■■ to them than before, and must either have pushed them nearer to F and G, contrary to their mutual repellency, ■■ press through by ■ force exceeding its repellency with them. It then approaches D, and to move it out of the way must act ■■ it with ■ force sufficient to ■■■■■■ its repellency with the two next lower particles by which it is kept in its present situation. Every particle of air, therefore, will bear any load inferior to the force of these repulsions.

Hence the support of fogs, mists, clouds.

Very warm air clear, though supporting ■ very great quantity of moisture, will grow turbid and cloudy on the mixture of a colder air; as foggy air will grow clear by warming.

Thus the sun shining ■■ a morning fog, dissipates it. Clouds are ■■■■ to waste in a sunshiny day.

But cold condenses and renders visible the vapor. A tankard or decanter filled with cold water, will condense the moisture of ■■■■ clear air ■■ its outside, where it becomes visible as dew, coalesces into drops, and descends in little streams.

The sun heats the air of our atmosphere most ■■■■ the surface of the earth; for there, besides the direct rays, there are many reflections. Moreover, the earth itself being heated, communicates of its heat to the neighboring air.

The higher regions having only the direct rays

of the sun passing through them, ■ comparatively very cold. Hence the cold air on the tops of mountains, and snow on ■ of them all the year, ■ in the torrid zone. Hence hail in ■

If the atmosphere ■ all of it both above and below, always of the ■ temperature as to cold ■ heat, then the upper air would always be *rarer* than the lower, because the pressure ■ it is less ; consequently lighter, and therefore would keep its place.

But the upper air may be more condensed by cold than the lower air by pressure, the lower more expanded by heat than the upper for want of pressure. In such ■ the upper air will become the heavier, the lower the lighter.

The lower region of air being heated and expanded, heaves up and supports for some time the colder heavier air above, and will continue to support it while the equilibrium is kept. Thus water is supported in ■ inverted open glass, while the equilibrium is maintained by the equal pressure upwards of the air below ; but the equilibrium by any ■ breaking, the water descends on the heaviest side, and the air rises into its place.

The lifted heavy cold air over ■ heated country, becoming by any means unequally supported, or unequal in its weight, the heaviest part descends first, and the rest follows impetuously ; hence gusts after heats, and hurricanes in hot climates. Hence

air of gusts and hurricanes cold though hot climes and it coming from above.

The cold air descending from above, as it penetrates our region full of watery particles, condenses them, renders them visible, forms a cloud, thick and dark, overcasting sometimes a large and extensively; sometimes when seen at a distance small at first, gradually increasing, the cold edge or surface of the cloud condensing vapors next it, which form smaller clouds that join it, increase its bulk, it descends with the wind, and its acquired weight, draws nearer the earth, grows denser with continual additions of water, and discharges heavy showers.

Small black clouds thus appearing in a clear sky in hot climates, portend storms, and to hand their sails.

The earth turning on its axis in about twenty-four hours, the equatorial parts must move about fifteen miles in each minute; in northern and southern latitudes this motion is gradually less to the poles, and there nothing.

If there was a general calm over the face of the earth, it be by the airs moving in every part as fast as the earth or sea it covers.

He that sails rides has insensibly the same degree of motion as the ship or coach with which he is connected. If the ship strikes the shore, the coach stops suddenly, the motion continuing in the man, he is thrown forward. If a man were

■ jump from the land into ■ swift-sailing ship, he would ■ thrown backward, ■ towards the stern, not having ■ first the motion of the ship.

He that travels by ■ or land towards the equinoctial, gradually acquires motion; from it, loses.

But if a ■ taken up from lat. 40. (where suppose the earth's surface to ■ twelve miles per minute,) and immediately set down at the equinoctial, without changing the motion he had, his heels would be struck up, he would ■ westward. If taken up from the equinoctial, ■ set down in lat. 40. he would fall eastward.

The air under the equator and between the tropics being constantly heated and rarefied by the sun, rises. Its place ■ supplied by air from north-■ and southern latitudes, which coming from parts where the earth and air had less motion, and not suddenly acquiring the quicker motion of the equatorial earth, appears an east wind blowing westward, the earth moving from west to east, and slipping under the air.

Thus when ■ ride in a calm, it seems ■ wind against ■. If we ride with the wind and faster, even that will seem a small wind against us.

The air rarefied between the tropics, and rising, ■ flow in the north and ■ higher region: before it ■ it had acquired the greatest motion the earth's rotation could give it. It retains some degree of this motion, ■ descending in higher latitudes where the earth's motion is less, will ap-

pear a westerly wind, yet tending towards the equinoctial parts to supply the vacancy occasioned by the air of the lower regions flowing thitherwards.

Hence the general cold winds are about north-west, the cold gusts the same.

The air in sultry weather, though not cloudy, has a kind of haziness in it, which makes objects at distances appear dull and indistinct. This haziness is occasioned by the great quantity of moisture equally diffused in that air. When by the cold wind blowing down among it, it is condensed into clouds and falls in rain, the air becomes purer and clearer : hence after gusts, distant objects appear distinct, their figures sharply terminated.

Extreme cold winds congeal the surface of the earth, by carrying off its fire. Warm winds afterwards blowing over that frozen surface, will be chilled by it. Could that frozen surface be turned under, and a warmer turned up from beneath it, these winds would not be chilled so much. The surface of the earth is also sometimes much heated by the sun ; and such heated surface not being changed, heats the air that moves over it.

Seas, lakes, and great bodies of water agitated by winds, continually change surfaces ; the cold surface in winter is turned under by the rolling of the waves (and the air over it,) and a warmer turned up : in summer the warmer is turned under,

and cooler turned up. Hence the more equal temper of sea-water, and the air ■■■ it. Hence in winter, winds from the ■■■ seem warm, winds from ■■■ land cold. In summer the contrary.

Therefore the lakes north-west of us,¹ as they are not so much frozen nor so apt to freeze as the earth, rather moderate than increase the coldness of ■■■ winter winds.

The air ■■■ the ■■■ being warmer, and therefore lighter in winter than the air over the frozen land, may ■■■ another cause of our general north-west winds, which blow off to ■■■ at right angles from ■■■ North-American coast. The warm light sea air rising, the heavy cold land air pressing into its place.

Heavy fluids descending, frequently form eddies or whirlpools, ■■■ is seen in a funnel, where the water acquires ■■■ circular motion, receding every way from ■■■ centre, and leaving ■■■ vacancy in ■■■ middle, greatest above, and lessening downwards, like a speaking trumpet, its biggest end upwards.

Air ascending ■■■ descending may form the same kind of eddies ■■■ whirlings, the parts of air acquiring ■■■ circular motion, and receding from the middle of the circle by a centrifugal force, and leaving there ■■■ vacancy, if descending, greatest above, and lessening downwards; if ascending, greatest below and lessening upwards, like ■■■

¹ In Pennsylvania.

write, it interrupts my train of thinking, so that I lay down my pen, and seek ■■■ light amusement.

I consent to your request concerning my paper ■■■ the weathercock struck by lightning.¹ Dispose of it as you please.

You will find ■■■ account of the first great stroke I received, in pages 160, 161, of my book, 5th edition, 1774.² The second I will ■■■ give you.

¹ ■■■ WRITINGS, Part IV.

² Extract from the ■■■

Turkey killed by electricity—Effect of a shock ■■■ operator making ■■■ experiment.

As Mr. Franklin, in a former letter to Mr. Collinson, mentions his intending to try the power of a very strong electrical shock upon a turkey, that gentleman accordingly has been ■■■ very obliging as to send an account of it, which is to the following purpose.

He made first several experiments on fowls, and found, that ■■■ large thin glass jars gilt, holding each about six gallons, were sufficient, when fully charged, to ■■■ ■■■ out-right; but the turkies, though thrown into violent convulsions, and ■■■ lying ■■■ dead for some minutes, would recover in less than a quarter of an hour. However, having ■■■ three other such ■■■ former two, though not fully charged, he ■■■ a turkey of about ■■■ pounds' weight, ■■■ believes that they would have killed a much larger. ■■■ conceited, as himself ■■■ the birds killed in ■■■ ■■■ uncommonly tender.

■■■ making these experiments, he found, that a man could, without great detriment, bear a much greater shock than he had

I had a paralytic patient in my chamber, whose friends brought him to receive electric shocks : I made them join hands to receive the shock at the same time, and I charged two large jars to give it. By the number of those people I was obliged to quit my usual standing, and placed myself inadvertently under an iron hook which hung from the ceiling down to within two inches of my head, and communicated by

imagined : for he inadvertently received the stroke of two of these jars through his arms and body, when they were very fully charged. It seemed to him a universal blow throughout the body from head to foot, and was followed by a violent quick trembling of the trunk, which continued gradually, in a few seconds. It was some minutes before he could recollect his thoughts, and to know what was the matter ; for he did not see the flash, though his eye was on the spot of the prime conductor, from whence it struck the back of his hand ; nor did he hear the crack, though the by-standers said it was a loud one ; nor did he particularly feel the stroke on his hand, though he afterwards found it had raised a swelling there, of the bigness of a pistol-bullet. His arms and the sides of the neck felt somewhat numbed the remainder of the evening, and he was lame for a week after, as he had been bruised. From this experiment may be seen the danger, even with the greatest caution, to the operator, when making these experiments with large jars ; for it is not doubted, that one of two fully charged would certainly, by increasing them, in proportion to the size, kill a man, as they before did a turkey.

N. B. The original of this letter, which was read at the Royal Society, has been mislaid.

with the outside of the jars. I attempted to discharge them, and in fact did so; but I did not perceive it, though the charge went through me, and through the persons I intended it for. I neither saw the flash, heard the report, nor felt the stroke. When my senses returned, I found myself on the floor. I got up, not knowing how that had happened. I then again attempted to discharge the jars; but one of the company told me they were already discharged, which I could not at first believe, but my trial found it true. They told me they had not felt it, but they said I was knocked down by it, which had greatly surprised them. On recollecting myself, and examining my situation, I found the case clear. A small swelling rose on the top of my head, which continued some days; but I do not remember any other effect, good or bad. The stroke you received, and its consequences, are much more curious. I communicated that part of your letter to an operator, encouraged by government here to electrify epileptics and other poor patients, and advised his trying his practice on mad people according to your opinion. I have not heard whether he has done it.

I do not know that my contrivance of a clock with three wheels only, which showed hours, minutes, and seconds, has yet been published. I have seen several of them here in Paris that were made by Mr. Whitehurst, and sent over-I

believe by Mr. Magellan. You welcome to do what you please with it. Mr. Whitehurst's invention is very simple, and should be very effectual, provided the foot of the rod and the situation of the clock are invariably fixed, so never to be at a greater or less distance from another, which may be by fixing both in a strait-grained piece of wood of about four feet long; wood not changing dimensions the length-way of the grain, by any common degree of heat or cold. But this cannot be trusted to in the wood of a clock case, because in sawing boards the grain is frequently crossed, and moisture and dryness will change their dimensions.

You have liberty also to publish, if you think fit, the experiment of a globe floating between two liquors. I suppose you remember to have seen it on my chimney-piece. Though it is a matter of no utility. Something of the same nature has been done more than an hundred years since by another person, I forget who.

What I formerly mentioned to you of hanging a weight on a spiral spring, to discover if bodies gravitated differently to the earth during the conjunctions of the sun and moon, compared with other times, is this. We suppose that by the force of gravity in those luminaries, the water of the ocean, an immense weight, is elevated so as to form the tides: if that be so, might we not expect that an iron ball of a pound weight, suspended by

a fine spiral spring, should, when the together both above it, be a at-



tracted upwards or rendered lighter, as to be drawn up a little by the spring which it depends, and the contrary when they both below it. The quantity, though very small, might perhaps be rendered visible by a contrivance like the above. It is not difficult to make this experiment, but I have never made it. With regard to the tides, I doubt the opinion of there being but two high waters and two low waters existing at time the globe. I rather think there are many, and those at the distance of about one hundred leagues from each other. The tides found in the river Amazons to favor this opinion. Observations hereafter in the isles of the Pacific Ocean, may confirm or refute it.

If I were in a situation where I could be a little of my time, I would, as you desire, write my the subject of chimneys: they

might, I think, be useful. For by what I see every-where the subject is too little understood, which occasions much inconvenience and fruitless expense. But besides being harassed by too much business, I am exposed to numberless visits, of kindness and civility, many of idle curiosity, from strangers of America and of different parts of Europe, as well as the inhabitants of the provinces who come to Paris. These devour my hours, and break my attention, and at night I often find myself fatigued without having done any thing. Celebrity may for a while flatter one's vanity, but its effects are troublesome. I have begun to write two or three things, which I wish to finish before I die; but I sometimes doubt the possibility.

* * * * *

FRANKLIN.

ON THE CAUSE AND CURE OF CHOLERA MORBUS.

TO DR. INGENHAUSE.

DEAR FRIEND, *At sea, Aug. 28, 1785.*

In one of your letters, a little before I left France, you desired me to give you in writing my thoughts upon the construction and use of chimnies, a subject you had sometimes heard me touch upon in conversation. I embrace willingly the opportunity by my present situation to comply

with your request, as it will not only show my regard to the desires of a friend, but may at the same time be of some utility to others; the doctrine of chimnies appearing not to be yet generally well understood, and mistakes respecting them being attended with constant inconvenience, not remedied, and with fruitless expense, if true remedies are mistaken.

Those who would be acquainted with this subject, should begin by considering what principle smoke ascends in any chimney. At first, many are apt to think that smoke in nature and of itself specifically lighter than air, and rises in it for the same reason that cork rises in water. These see why smoke should not rise in the chimney, though the room be ever close. Others think there is a power in chimnies to draw the smoke, and that there are different forms of chimnies which afford more or less of this power. These themselves with searching for the best form. The equal dimensions of a funnel in whole length not thought artificial enough, and it is made, for fancied reasons, sometimes tapering and narrowing from below upwards, and the contrary, &c. A simple experiment may give correct ideas. Having lit a pipe of tobacco, plunge the stem to the bottom of a decanter half filled with cold water; then putting a rag over the bowl, blow through it make the smoke descend in the of the pipe,

the end of which A will rise in bubbles through the water; and being B cooled, will not afterwards C go out through the neck of the decanter, but remain spreading itself and resting D the surface of the water. E shows that smoke F really heavier than air, and that it is carried upwards only when attached to, or acted upon, by air that G heated, and thereby rarefied and rendered specifically lighter than the air in its neighborhood.

Smoke being rarely seen but in company with heated air, and its upward motion being visible, though that of the rarefied air that drives it is not so, has naturally given rise to the error.

I need not explain to you, my learned friend, what is meant by rarefied air; but if you make the public H you propose of this letter, it may fall into the hands of I who J unacquainted with the term and with the thing. These then may be told, K air is L fluid which has weight as well as others, though about eight hundred times lighter than water. That heat makes the particles of air recede from each other and take up M space, N O the weight of air heated will have P bulk, than equal weights of cold air which may surround it, and in that Q must rise, being forced upwards by such colder and heavier air, which presses R get under S and take its place. That air T so U fied or expanded by heat, may be proved to V comprehension, by a lank blown bladder, which,

laid before a fire, will soon swell, grow tight, and burst.

Another experiment may be to take a glass tube about an inch in diameter, and twelve inches long, stop both ends, and fixed upright on legs, so that it need not be handled, for the hands might break it. At the end of a quill fasten five or six inches of the finest light filament of silk, so that it may be held either above the upper end of the tube or under the lower end, your other hand being at a distance by the length of the quill. (See the plate, fig. 1.) If there were any motion of air through the tube, it would manifest itself by its effect on the silk; but if the tube and the air in it are of the same temperature with the surrounding air, there will be no such motion, whatever may be the form of the tube, whether crooked or strait, narrow below and widening upwards, or the contrary; the air in it will be quiescent. Warm the tube, and you will find, as long as it continues warm, a constant current of air entering below and passing up through it, till discharged at the top; because the warmth of the tube being communicated to the air it contains, rarefies that air and makes it lighter than the air without, which therefore presses in below, forces it upwards, and follows and takes its place, and is rarefied in its turn. And, without warming the tube, if you hold under it a knob of hot iron, the air thereby heated will rise and fill the tube, going

out its top; and this motion in the tube will continue as long as the knob remains hot, because air entering the tube below is heated and rarefied by passing near and over that knob.

That this motion is produced merely by the difference of specific gravity between the fluid within and that without the tube, and not by any fancied form of the tube itself, may appear by plunging it into water contained in a glass jar a foot deep, through which such motion might be expected. The water within and without the tube being of the same specific gravity, balance each other, and both remain at rest. But take out the tube, stop the bottom with a finger, and fill it with olive oil, which is lighter than water, then stopping the top, place it as before, its lower end under water, its top a very little above: as long as you keep the bottom stopt the fluids remain at rest, but the moment it is unstopt, the heavier enters below, forces up the lighter, and takes its place. And the motion then ceases, merely because the oil fluid cannot be successively made lighter, as air may be by a vacuum tube.

In fact, no form of the funnel or chimney has any share in its operation or effect respecting smoke, except its height. The longer the funnel, if erect, the greater its force when filled with heated and rarefied air, to draw in below and drive up the smoke, if one may, in compliance with custom, the expression *draw*, when in fact it is the superior

Weight of the surrounding atmosphere that *presses* to enter the funnel below, and *drives up* before smoke and air it meets with in its passage.

I have been the more particular in explaining these first principles, because, for of clear ideas respecting them, much fruitless expense has been occasioned; not only single chimnies, but in instances within my knowledge, whole stacks having been pulled down, and rebuilt with funnels of different forms, imagined powerful in drawing smoke; but having still the same height and the same opening below, have performed no better than their predecessors.

What it then which makes a *smoky chimney*, that is, a chimney which, instead of conveying up all the smoke, discharges a part of it into the room, offending the eyes and damaging the furniture?

The of this effect, which have under my observation, amount to nine, differing from each other, and therefore requiring different remedies.

1. *Smoky chimnies in a house, such frequently from want of air.* The workmanship of the rooms being good, and just out of the workman's hand, the joints of the boards of the flooring, and of the pannels of wainscotting all true and tight, the more so as the walls, perhaps not yet thoroughly dry, preserve dampness in the air of the room keeps the wood-work

swelled and close. The doors and the sashes, too, being worked with truth, with exactness, that the is as tight a snuff-box, no being left open for air to enter, except the key-hole, and even that is sometimes covered by a little dropping shutter. Now if smoke cannot rise but connected with rarefied air, and a column of such air, suppose it filling the funnel, cannot rise, unless other air be admitted to supply its place; and if, therefore, a current of air enter opening of the chimney, there is nothing to prevent the smoke coming out into the street. If the motion upwards of the air in a chimney that is freely supplied be observed by the rising of the smoke or a feather in it, and it be considered that in the time such feather takes in rising from the fire to the top of the chimney a column of air equal to the content of the funnel must be discharged, and an equal quantity supplied from the room below, it will appear absolutely impossible that this operation should go on if the tight room is kept shut; for were there any force capable of drawing constantly so much air out of it, it must be exhausted like the receiver of an air-pump, and no animal could live in it. Those therefore who stop every crevice in a room to prevent the admission of fresh air, and yet would have their chimney carry up the smoke, require inconsistencies, and expect impossibilities. Yet under this situation, I have seen the owner of a new house, in despair, and

ready to sell it for much less than ■ cost, ■ ceiving it uninhabitable, because not ■ chimney in any ■ of its rooms would carry off the smoke, unless ■ door ■ window were ■ open. Much expense has also frequently been gone into to alter and amend ■ chimnies which had really no fault; in one house particularly that I knew, of a noble- ■ in Westminster, that expense amounted to no less than three hundred pounds, *after* his house had been, ■ he thought, finished and all charges paid. And after all, several of the alterations were ineffectual, for want of understanding the true principles.

Remedies. When you ■ on trial, that opening the door or ■ window enables the chimney to carry up all the smoke, you may be ■ that want of air *from without* ■ the cause of its smoking. I say *from without*, to guard you against a ■ mis- take of those who may ■ you the ■ is large, contains abundance of air, sufficient to supply any chimney, and therefore it cannot be that the chim- ney wants air. These ■ are ignorant that the largeness of ■ room, if tight, is in this ■ of small importance, since it cannot part with a chim- ney-ful of air without occasioning ■ much va- ■ ; which ■ requires a great force to effect, and could ■ be borne if effected.

It appearing plainly, then, that ■ of the out- ward air, ■ admitted, the question will be, *how much is absolutely necessary?* for you would

avoid admitting more, as being contrary to ■ of your intentions in having a fire, viz. that of warming your ■. To discover this quantity, shut the door gradually while ■ middling fire is burning, ■ you find that, before it is quite shut, the smoke begins to ■ out into the room, then open it a little till you perceive the smoke ■ out ■ longer. There hold the door, and observe the width of the open crevice between the edge of the door and the rabbit it should shut into. Suppose the distance to be half an inch, and the door eight feet high, you find thence that your room requires an entrance for air equal in area to ninety-six half inches, or forty-eight square inches, or ■ passage of six inches by eight. This however is ■ large supposition, there being few chimnies that, having a moderate opening and a tolerable height of funnel, will not be satisfied with such a crevice of ■ quarter of an inch; and ■ have found a square of six by six, ■ thirty-six square inches, to be ■ pretty good medium, that will ■ for most chimnies. High funnels, with small and low openings, may indeed be supplied through ■ less space, because for ■ that will appear hereafter, the *force of levity*, if one may ■ speak, being greater in such funnels; the cool air enters the room with greater velocity, and consequently more enters in the ■ time. This however has ■ limits; for experience shows, that ■ increased velocity, ■ occasioned, has made ■ admission ■ air through the key-

hole equal in quantity to that through an open door; though through the door the current moves slowly, and through the key-hole with great rapidity.

It remains then to be considered how and where the necessary quantity of air from without is to be admitted so as to be least inconvenient. For if the door, left much open, the air thence proceeds directly to the chimney, and in that way is cold to your back and heels as you sit before your fire. If you keep the door shut, and open a little the sash of your window, you feel the same inconvenience. Various have been the contrivances to avoid this, such as bringing in air through pipes in the jambs of the chimney, which, pointing upwards, should blow the smoke up the funnel; opening passages into the funnel above, to let in air for the same purpose. But these produce an effect contrary to that intended; for it is the constant current of air passing from the room *through the opening of the chimney* into the funnel which prevents the smoke coming out into the room, if you supply the funnel by other means or in other ways with the air it wants, and especially if that air be cold, you diminish the force of that current, and the smoke in its effort to enter the funnel finds less resistance.

The wanted air must then *indispensably* be admitted into the room, to supply what goes off through the opening of the chimney. M. Gauger,

a very ingenious and intelligent French writer on the subject, proposes with judgment to admit it *above* the opening of the chimney; and to prevent inconvenience from its coldness, he directs its being made to pass in its entrance through winding cavities made behind the iron back and sides of the fire-place, and under the iron hearth-plate; in which cavities it will be warmed, and ~~thus~~ heated, so as ~~to~~ contribute much, instead of cooling, to the warming of the room. This invention is excellent in itself, and may be used with advantage in building new houses; because the chimnies may then be ~~so~~ disposed ~~as~~ to admit conveniently the cold air to enter such passages: but in houses built without such views, the chimnies are often ~~so~~ situated, ~~as~~ not to afford that convenience, without great and expensive alterations. Easy and cheap methods, though not quite ~~so~~ perfect in themselves, are of ~~great~~ general utility; and such are the following.

In all rooms where there is a fire, the body of air warmed and rarefied before the chimney is continually changing place, and making room for other air that is to be warmed in its turn. Part of ~~it~~ enters and goes up the chimney, and the rest rises and takes place near the ceiling. If the ~~room~~ be lofty, that ~~warmed~~ air remains above ~~the~~ heads as long as it continues warm, and ~~the~~ are little benefited by it, because ~~it~~ does not descend ~~and~~ it is cooler. Few can imagine the difference of climate

between the upper and lower parts of such a window who has not tried it by a thermometer, or by going up a ladder till their heads are near the ceiling. It is then among this warm air that the wanted quantity of outward air is best admitted, with which being mixed, its coldness is abated, the inconvenience diminished, and it becomes scarce observable. This may be easily done by drawing down about an inch the upper sash of a window; or, if not moveable, by cutting such a crevice through its frame; in both which cases, it may be well to place a thin shelf of the length, to conceal the opening, and sloping upwards to direct the entering air horizontally along and under the ceiling. In some houses the air may be admitted by such a crevice made in the wainscoat, cornice, or plastering, near the ceiling and over the opening of the chimney. This, if practicable, is to be chosen, because the entering cold air will there meet with the warmest rising air from before the fire, and be soonest tempered by the mixture. The same kind of shelf should also be placed here. Another way, and not a very difficult one, is to take out an upper pane of glass in one of your sashes, fixing it in a tin frame, (plate IV. fig. 2.) giving it two springing angular sides, and then replacing it, on hinges below on which it may be turned to open more or less above. It will thus have the appearance of an internal sky-light. By drawing this pane in, more or less, you may admit what air

you necessary. Its position will naturally throw that air and along the ceiling. This is what is called in France a *Was ist das?* As this is a German question, the invention is probably that nation, which takes its name from the frequent asking of that question when it first appeared. In England, we have of late years cut a round hole about six inches diameter in a pane of the window and placed against it a circular plate of tin hung on an axis, and cut into vanes, which, being separately bent a little obliquely, are acted upon by the entering air, so as to force the plate continually round like the sails of a windmill. This admits the outward air, and by the continual whirling of the vanes, does in some degree disperse it. The noise only is a little inconvenient.

2. A second fault of the smoking of chimnies is, *their openings in the room being too large*; that is, too wide, too high, and both. Architects in general have no other ideas of proportion in the opening of a chimney, than what relate to symmetry and beauty, respecting the dimensions of the room:¹ while its true proportion, respecting its functions and utility, depends on quite other principles; and they might properly proportion the step in a staircase to the height of the story, instead of the elevation of men's legs in mounting. The proportion then to be regarded, is what

¹ See Notes at the end of this paper, L.

lates to the height of the funnel. For the funnels in the different stories of a house are necessarily of different heights or lengths, that from the lowest floor being the highest or longest, and those of the other floors shorter and shorter, till they come to those in the garrets, which are of course the shortest; and the force of draft being, as already said, in proportion to the height of funnel filled with rarefied air; and a current of air from the room into the chimney, sufficient to fill the opening, being necessary to oppose and prevent the smoke coming out into the room; it follows, that the openings of the longest funnels may be larger, and that those of the shorter funnels should be smaller. For if there be a large opening to a chimney that does not draw strongly, the funnel may happen to be furnished with the air it demands by a partial current entering on one side of the opening, and, leaving the other side free of any opposing current, may permit the smoke to issue there into the room. Much too of the force of draught in a funnel depends on the degree of rarefaction in the air it contains, and that depends on the velocity to the funnel of its passage in entering the funnel. If it can enter far from the fire on each side, as far above the fire, in a wide and high opening, the air receives less rarefaction in passing by the fire, and the contents of the funnel is by that less different in levity from the surrounding atmosphere, and its force in drawing consequently weaker. Hence if too large an

opening be given to chimnies in upper rooms, those **rooms** will be smoky : **on** the other hand, if too small openings be given to chimnies in the lower rooms, the entering air, operating too directly and violently on the fire, and afterwards strengthening the draft **as** it ascends the funnel, will consume the fuel too rapidly.

Remedy. As different circumstances frequently mix themselves in these matters, it is difficult to give precise dimensions for the openings of all chimnies. Our fathers made them generally much too large ; **we** have lessened them ; but they **are** often still of greater dimension than they should be, the human eye not being easily reconciled to sudden and great changes. If you suspect that your chimney smokes from the too great dimension of its opening, contract it by placing moveable boards **as** to lower and **raise** it gradually, till you find the smoke **no** longer issues into the **street**. The proportion **so** found will be that which is proper for that chimney, and you may employ the bricklayer or **mason** to reduce it accordingly. However, **in** building new houses, something must be sometimes hazarded, I would make the openings in my lower rooms about thirty inches square and eighteen deep, and those in the upper only eighteen inches square and not quite **so** deep ; the intermediate ones diminishing in proportion **as** the height of funnel diminished. **the** the larger

openings, *of two feet long, or half the common length of cord-wood, may be burnt conveniently; and for the smaller, such wood may be sawed into thirds.* Where coals are the fuel, the grates will be proportioned to the openings. The same depth is nearly necessary to all, the funnels being all made of a size proper to admit of a chimney-sweeper. If in large and elegant houses custom or fancy should require the appearance of a large chimney, it may be formed of extensive marginal decorations, in marble, &c. In time, perhaps, that which is fittest in the nature of things may be thought handsomest. But at present, when men and women in different countries show themselves dissatisfied with the forms God has given to their heads, waists and feet, and pretend to shape them perfectly, it is hardly to be expected that they will be content always with the best form of a chimney. And there some, I know, bigotted to the fancy of a large noble opening, that rather than change it, they would submit to have damaged furniture, sore eyes, and skins almost smoked to bacon.

3. Another of smoky chimnies is, *too short a funnel.* This happens necessarily in some cases, where a chimney is required in a low building; if the funnel be raised high above the roof, in order to strengthen its draught, it is in danger of being blown down, and crushing the roof in fall.

Remedies. Contract the opening of the chimney so as to oblige all the entering air to pass through or very near the fire, whereby it will be more heated and rarefied, the funnel itself be warmed, its contents have more of what may be called the force of levity, so as to rise strongly and maintain a good draught at the opening.

Or you may in some cases, to advantage, add additional stories over the low building, which will support a high funnel.

If a low building be used as a kitchen, and a contraction of the opening therefore inconvenient, a large one being necessary, at least when there are great dinners, for the free management of so many cooking utensils; in such case I would advise the building of two more funnels joining to the first, and having three moderate openings, one to each funnel, instead of one large one. When there is occasion to use but one, the other two may be kept closed by sliding plates, hereafter to be described; and two of them may be used together when wanted. This will indeed be an expense, but not an useless one, since your cooks will work with more comfort, see better than in a smoky kitchen what they are about, your victuals will be cleaner dressed, and not so full of smoke, as is often the case; and to render the effect more certain, a stack

* See Notes at the end of this Paper, No. II.

of funnels may be safely built higher above roof than a single funnel.

The case of too short a funnel is more general than would be imagined, and often found where one would not expect it. For it is not uncommon, in ill-contrived buildings, instead of having a funnel for each room or fire-place, to bend and turn the funnel of an upper room so as to make it enter the side of another funnel that comes from below. By this means the upper funnel is made short of course, since its length can only be reckoned from the place where it enters the lower room funnel; and that funnel is also shortened by all the distance between the entrance of the second funnel and the top of the stack; for all that part being readily supplied with air through the second funnel, adds no strength to the draught, especially if the air is cold where there is no fire in the second chimney. The only easy remedy here is, to keep the opening shut of that funnel in which there is no fire.

4. Another very common cause of the smoking of chimnies is, *their overpowering another*. For instance, if there be two chimnies in one large room, and you make fires in both of them, the doors and windows close shut, you will find that the greater and stronger fire shall overpower the weaker, and draw air down its funnel to supply its own demand; which air descending in the weaker funnel will drive down its smoke, and force it into

the room. If, instead of being in one room, the two chimnies are in two different rooms, communicating by a door, the ~~room~~ is the ~~room~~ whenever the door is open. In a very tight house, I have known a kitchen chimney on the lowest floor, when it had a great fire in it, overpower any other chimney in the house, and draw air and smoke into its room, as often as the door was opened communicating with the staircase.

Remedy. Take care that every room has the means of supplying itself from without, with the air its chimney may require, so that no one of them may be obliged to borrow from another, nor under the necessity of lending. A variety of these means have been already described.

5. Another cause of smoking is, when the tops of chimnies are commanded by higher buildings, or by a hill, so that the wind blowing over such eminences falls like water over a dam, sometimes almost perpendicularly on the tops of the chimnies that lie in its way, and beats down the smoke contained in them.

Remedy. That commonly applied to this case, is a turncap made of tin or plate iron, covering the chimney above and on three sides, open on one side, turning on a spindle, and which, being guided and governed by a vane, always presents its back to the current. This I believe may be generally effectual, though not certain, as there may be cases in

it will not succeed. Raising your funnels, if practicable, as their tops may be higher, or equal with the commanding eminence, is more to be depended on. But the turning cap, being easier and cheaper, should first be tried. If obliged to build in such a situation, I would to place my doors on the side next the hill, and the backs of my chimnies on the further side; then the column of air falling from the eminence, and of course pressing on that below, and forcing it to enter the doors, *Was-ist-dases* on that side, would tend to balance the pressure down the chimnies, and leave the funnels free in the exercise of their functions.

6. There is another case of command, the reverse of that last mentioned. It is where the commanding eminence is farther from the wind than the chimney commanded. To explain this a figure may be necessary. Suppose then a building (Plate IV. figure 3.) whose side A, happens to be exposed to the wind, and forms a kind of dam against its progress; the air obstructed by this dam will, like water, press and search for passages through it, and finding the top of the chimney B, below the top of the dam, it will force itself down that funnel, and get through by some door or window open on the side of the building. And if there be a fire in such chimney, its smoke is of course beat down, and fills the room.

Remedy. I know of but one, which is to raise the funnel higher than the roof, supporting it, if necessary, by iron bars. For a turn-cap in such case has no effect, the wind up air pressing down through it in whatever position the wind may have placed its opening.

I know a city in which many houses are rendered smoky by this operation. For their kitchens being built behind, and connected by a passage with the houses, and the tops of the kitchen chimnies lower than the top of the houses, the whole of a street, when the wind blows against the back, forms such a dam as above described; and the wind, being obstructed, forces down those kitchen chimnies (especially when they have but weak fires in them) to pass through the passage and house into the street. Kitchen chimnies, so formed and situated, have another inconvenience. In winter, if you open your upper room windows for air, a light breeze blowing over your kitchen chimney towards the house, though not strong enough to force down its smoke as aforesaid, is sufficient to waft it into your windows, and fill the room with it; which, besides the disagreeableness, damages your furniture.

7. Chimnies, otherwise drawing well, are sometimes made to smoke by the improper and inconvenient situation of a door. When the door and chimney are on the same side of the room as in plate IV. figure 4, if the door A, being in the corner, is

made **■** open against **the** wall which is **■** being there, when open, **■** out of the way, **■** follows, **■** when the door is only opened in part, **■** current of air rushing in passes along the **■** into and **■** the opening of the chimney B, and flirts some of the smoke out into the room. This happens **■** certainly when the door is shutting, for then the force of the current is augmented, and becomes very inconvenient to those who, warming themselves by the fire, happen to sit in its way.

The remedies are obvious and easy. Either put **■** intervening skreen from the wall round great part of the fire-place; or, which is perhaps preferable, shift the hinges of your door, **■** it may open the other way, and when open throw the air along the other wall.

8. A room, that has no fire in its chimney, is sometimes filled with *smoke which is received **■** the top of its funnel and descends into the **■*** In a former paper^{*} I have already explained the descending currents of air in cold funnels; it may not be amiss however to repeat here, that funnels without fires have an effect, according to their degree of coldness or warmth, **■** the air that happens to be contained in them. The surrounding atmosphere **■** frequently changing its temperature; but stacks of funnels, covered from winds and **■** by the house that contains them, retain a **■**

* See Notes at the end of this paper, No. II.

equal temperature. If, in a warm season, the outward air suddenly grows cold, the empty warm funnels begin to draw strongly upward; this is, they rarefy the air contained in them, which of course rises, cooler air enters below to supply its place, is rarefied in its turn, and rises; and this operation continues till the funnel grows cooler, or the outward air warmer, or both, when the motion ceases. On the other hand, if after a cold season, the outward air suddenly grows warm and of course lighter, the air contained in the cool funnels, being heavier, descends into the room; and the air which enters their tops being cooled in its turn, and made heavier, continues to descend; and this operation goes on till the funnels are warmed by the passing of the warm air through them, or the air itself grows cooler. When the temperature of the air and of the funnels is nearly equal, the difference of warmth in the air between day and night is sufficient to produce these currents, the air will begin to ascend the funnels in the cool of the evening, and this current will continue till perhaps nine or ten o'clock the next morning, when it begins to hesitate; and as the heat of the day approaches, it descends downwards, and continues till towards evening, when it again hesitates for some time, and then goes upwards constantly during the night, as before mentioned. Now when smoke issuing from the tops of neighboring funnels passes over the tops of fun-

nels which are at the time drawing downwards, as they often are in the middle part of the day, such smoke is of necessity drawn into funnels, with the air into the chamber.

The remedy is to have a sliding plate, hereafter described, which will perfectly the offending funnel.

9. Chimneys which generally draw well, do nevertheless sometimes give smoke into the rooms, it being driven down by strong winds passing over the tops of their funnels, though descending from any commanding eminence. This case is frequent where the funnel is short, and the opening is from the wind. It is very grievous, when it happens to be a cold wind that produces the effect, because when you want your fire, you are sometimes obliged to extinguish it. To understand this, it may be considered that the rising light air, to obtain a free issue from the funnel, must push out of its way and oblige the air that is over it to rise. In a time of calm or of little wind it is done visibly, for when the smoke that is brought up by that air rise in a column above the chimney. But when a violent current of air, that is, a strong wind, passes over the top of a chimney, its particles have received so much force, which keeps them in a horizontal direction, and follow each other so rapidly, that the rising light air

* See Notes at the end of this paper, No. II.

strength sufficient to oblige them to quit that direction and ~~move~~ upwards to permit its issue. Add to this, ~~that~~ some of ~~the~~ ~~current~~ passing over that side of the funnel which it first ~~meets~~ with, viz. ~~at~~ A. (plate IV. figure 5.) having ~~been~~ compressed by ~~the~~ resistance of the funnel, may expand itself ~~into~~ the flue, and strike the interior opposite side at B, from whence it may ~~be~~ reflected downwards and from side ~~to~~ side in the direction of the pricked lines c c c.

Remedies. In ~~many~~ places, particularly in Venice, where they have not stacks of chimnies but single flues, the custom is, to open or widen the top of the flue rounding in the true form of ~~a~~ funnel; (plate IV. figure 6.) which ~~many~~ think may prevent ~~the~~ effect just mentioned; for that the wind blowing ~~into~~ ~~the~~ of the edges into the funnel, may be slant-~~ed~~ out again on the other side by its form. I have ~~had~~ no experience of this; but I have lived in a windy country, where the contrary is practised, ~~the~~ tops of the flues being narrowed inwards, so ~~that~~ form a slit for the issue of the smoke, long as the ~~length~~ of the funnel, ~~and~~ only four inches wide. ~~This~~ seems to have been contrived on a supposition, ~~that~~ ~~the~~ entry of the wind would thereby be obstructed, and perhaps ~~it~~ might have ~~been~~ imagined, that the whole force of the rising warm air being condensed, ~~as~~ it were, in ~~the~~ ~~central~~ opening, would thereby be strengthened, so as to overcome the resistance of the ~~solid~~. This however did not

always succeed ; for when the wind was at north-east and blew fresh, the smoke was forced down by fits into the chimney I commonly sat in, so as to oblige me to shift the fire into another. The position of the slit of this funnel was indeed north-east and south-west. Perhaps if it had lain in the wind, the effect might have been different. But on this I can give no certainty. It is a matter proper to be referred to experiment. Possibly a turn-cap might have been serviceable, but it was never tried.

Chimnies have not been long in use in England. I formerly saw a book printed in the time of queen Elizabeth, which remarked the then modern improvements of living, and mentioned among others the convenience of chimnies. " Our forefathers," said the author, " had no chimnies. There was in each dwelling-house only one place for a fire, and the smoke went out through a hole in the roof; but now there is in every gentleman's house in England that has not at least one chimney in it." When there was but one chimney, its top might then be opened as a funnel, and perhaps, borrowing the form from the Venetians, it was then the flue of a chimney got that shape. Such was the growth of luxury, that in both England and France we must have a chimney for every room, and in some houses every possessor of a chamber, and almost every servant, will have a fire; so that the flues being necessarily built in stacks,

the opening of each as a funnel is impracticable. This change of ~~method~~ ~~have~~ consumed the firewood of England, and will soon render fuel extremely ~~scarce~~ and dear in France, if ~~the~~ ~~use~~ of coals be not introduced in the latter kingdom as ~~it~~ ~~has~~ been in the former, where it ~~is~~ ~~done~~ with opposition ; for there is extant in ~~the~~ records of one of queen Elizabeth's parliaments, a motion made by a member, reciting, "That many dyers, brewers, smiths, and other artificers of London, had of late taken to the use of pitcoal for their fires, instead of wood, which ~~filled~~ the air with noxious vapors and smoke, very prejudicial to the health, particularly of persons coming out of the country ; and therefore moving that a law might pass to prohibit the use of such fuel (at least during the session of parliament) by those artificers."—It seems it ~~was~~ not then commonly used in private houses. Its supposed unwholesomeness ~~was~~ an objection. Luckily the inhabitants of London have got ~~over~~ that objection, and ~~now~~ think it rather contributes to render their air salubrious, as they have had no general pestilential disorder since the general use of coals, when, before it, such ~~was~~ frequent. ~~But~~ ~~it~~ burns wood at an enormous expense, continually augmenting, the inhabitants having still ~~the~~ prejudice to ~~it~~. In Germany you ~~are~~ happy in the ~~use~~ of stoves, which save ~~much~~ wonderfully ; your people ~~are~~ very ingenious in the management of fire ; but they may still learn something in that

the Chinese,² whose country being greatly populous and fully cultivated, has little for the growth of wood, and having not much is good, have been forced upon many inventions during a course of ages, for making a fire go as far as possible.

I have thus gone through the common causes of the smoking of chimnies that I can present recollect having fallen under my observation; communicating the remedies that I have known successfully used for the different cases, together with the principles which both the disease and the remedy depend, and confessing my ignorance wherever I have been sensible of it. You will do well, if you publish, as you propose, this letter, to add in notes, or as you please, such observations as may have occurred to your attentive mind; and if other philosophers do the same, this part of science, though humble, yet of great utility, may in time be perfected. For many years past, I have rarely met with of a smoky chimney, which has not been solvable on these principles, and cured by these remedies, where people have been willing to apply them; which is indeed always the case; for many have prejudices in favor of the nostrums of pretending chimney-doctors and fumists, and have conceits and fancies of their own, which they rather choose to try, than

² See Notes at the end of this paper, No. III.

lengthen a funnel, alter the size of an opening, admit air into a room, however necessary; for some are as much afraid of fresh air as persons in the hydrophobia are of fresh water. I myself had formerly this prejudice, this *acrophobia*, as I may account it, and dreading the supposed dangerous effects of cool air, I considered it my enemy, and closed with extreme care every crevice in the house I inhabited. Experience has convinced me of my error. I now look upon fresh air as a friend: I sleep with an open window. I am persuaded that no air from without is so unwholesome as the air within a close room that has been often breathed and not changed. Moist air too, which formerly I thought pernicious, gives me now no apprehensions: for considering that no dampness of air applied to the outside of my skin can be equal to what is applied to and touches it within, my whole body being full of moisture, and finding that I may lie two hours in a bath twice a-week, covered with water, which certainly is much damper than any air may be, and this for years together, without catching cold, or being in any other manner disordered by it, I no longer dread mere moisture, either in air or in sheets or shirts: and I find it of importance to the happiness of life, the being freed from vain terrors, especially of objects which we are every day exposed inevitably to come in contact with. You physicians have happily discovered, after a contrary

opinion had prevailed some ages, that **heat** and cool **air** does good to persons in the **small** pox and other fevers. **It** is to be hoped, that in another century or two **we** may all find out, that it is **bad** even for people in health. And **as** to moist air, here **I** **am** at this present writing in **a** ship with above forty persons, who have had no other but moist air to breathe for six weeks past; every thing we touch is damp, and nothing dries, yet we are all **so** healthy **as** **we** should be **in** the mountains of Switzerland, whose inhabitants **are** not **more** **sickly** than those of Bermuda or St. Helena, islands **where** whose rocks the **waves** are dashed into millions of particles, which fill the air with damp, but produce no diseases, the moisture being pure, unmixed with the poisonous vapors arising from putrid marshes and stagnant pools, in which many insects die and corrupt the water. These places only, **in** my opinion, (which however I submit to yours) afford unwholesome air; and that it is not the mere water contained in damp air, but the volatile particles of corrupted animal matter mixed with **the** water, which renders such air pernicious to those who breathe it. And I imagine it **a** **kind** of the **same** kind that renders the air in close rooms, where **the** perspirable matter **is** breathed **in** and over again by **a** number of assembled people, **so** hurtful **to** health. After being in such a situation, many **of** themselves affected by **a** *febricula*, which **the** English call *a cold*, and, perhaps from **the** **same**

imagine that they caught the malady by going out of the room, when it was in fact by being in it.

You begin to think I wander from my subject, and go out of my depth. I return again to my chimnies.

We have of late many lecturers in experimental philosophy. I have wished that some of them would study this branch of that science, and give experiments in a part of their lectures. The addition to their present apparatus need be very expensive. A number of little representations of rooms, composed each of five panes of glass, framed in wood at the corners, with proportionable doors, and moveable glass chimnies, with openings of different sizes, and different lengths of funnel, and of the rooms contrived to communicate on occasion with others, to form different combinations, and exemplify different cases; with quantities of green wax taper cut into pieces of an inch and half, sixteen of which stuck together in a square, and lit, would make a strong fire for a little glass chimney, and blown out, would continue to burn and give smoke as long as desired. With such an apparatus all the operations of smoke and rarefied air in rooms and chimnies might be shown through their transparent sides; and the effects of winds on chimnies, commanded or otherwise, might be shown by letting the entering air pass upon them through an opened window of the lecturer's chamber, where

it would be constant and he kept a good fire in the chimney. By the help of such lectures the people would become better instructed. At present they have generally but one remedy, which perhaps they have known effectual in some case of smoky chimnies, and they apply that indiscriminately to all the other causes, without success,—but not without expense to their employers.

Will all the science, however, that a man shall suppose himself possessed of in this article, he may sometimes meet with some that may puzzle him. I was lodged in a house at London, which, in a small room, had a single chimney and funnel. The opening was very small, yet it did not keep in the smoke, and all attempts to have a fire in the room were fruitless. I could not imagine the reason, till at length observing that the chamber over it, which had no fire-place in it, was always filled with smoke when a fire was kindled below, and that the smoke came through the cracks and crevices of the wainscot; I had the wainscot taken down, and discovered that the funnel which went up behind it, had a crack many feet in length, and wide enough to admit my arm, a breach very dangerous with regard to fire, and occasioned probably by an apparent irregular settling of one side of the house. The air entering this breach freely, destroyed the drawing force of the funnel. The remedy would have been, filling up the breach, or rather rebuilding the funnel; but the landlord rather chose to stop up the chimney.

Another puzzling I met with a friend's country-house London. best chimney in which, he told me, never have a fire, for all the smoke came into the room. I flattered myself I could easily find cause, and prescribe the I had a fire there, and found it he said. I opened the door and perceived it not want of air. I made a temporary contraction of the opening of the chimney, and found that it was not its being too large caused the smoke to issue. I went out and looked up the top of the chimney: its funnel was joined in the same stack with others, of them shorter, that drew very well, and I nothing to prevent its doing the same. In fine, after every other examination I could think of, I was obliged to the insufficiency of my skill. But my friend, who made pretensions such kind of knowledge, afterwards discovered the cause himself. He got to the top of the funnel by a ladder, and looking down, found it filled with twigs and straw cemented by earth, and with feathers. It seems the house, after being built, had stood empty some years before he occupied it; and he concluded that large birds had taken advantage of its retired situation to make their nest. The rubbish, considerable in quantity, being removed, and the funnel cleared, the chimney drew well gave

In general, smoke is a very tractable thing,

easily governed and ~~_____~~ when one knows the principles, and is well informed of ~~_____~~ circumstances. You know I made it *descend* in my Pennsylvania stove. I formerly ~~_____~~ a more simple ~~_____~~ construction, in which the same effect ~~_____~~ produced, ~~_____~~ visible ~~_____~~ the eye. (Plate IV. figure 7.) It ~~_____~~ composed of two plates, A B and C D, placed ~~_____~~ in the figure. The lower plate A B rested with its edge in the angle made by the hearth with the back of ~~_____~~ chimney. The upper plate ~~_____~~ ~~_____~~ to the breast, and lapped over the lower about six inches wide and the length of the plates (near two feet) between them. Every other passage of air into the funnel was well stopped. When therefore a fire ~~_____~~ made at E, for the ~~_____~~ time with charcoal, till the air in the funnel ~~_____~~ a little heated through ~~_____~~ plates, and then wood laid on, the smoke would ~~_____~~ A, turn over the edge of that plate, descend ~~_____~~ D, then turn under the edge of ~~_____~~ upper plate, ~~_____~~ go up the chimney. ~~_____~~ pretty to ~~_____~~ ~~_____~~ of ~~_____~~ great use. Placing therefore the under plate in ~~_____~~ higher situation, I removed ~~_____~~ upper plate C D, and placed it perpendicularly, (plate IV. figure 8,) so that the upper edge of the lower plate A B came within about three inches of it, ~~_____~~ might be pushed farther from it, ~~_____~~ suffered ~~_____~~ come ~~_____~~ to it, by ~~_____~~ moveable wedge between them. The flame then ascending from the fire ~~_____~~ E, was ~~_____~~ to ~~_____~~ ~~_____~~ plate, made ~~_____~~ very hot,

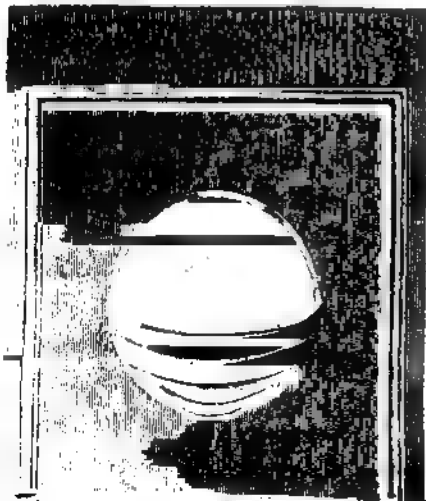
IV. PHILOSOPHICAL SUBJECTS.

and its heat rose and spread with the rarefied air into

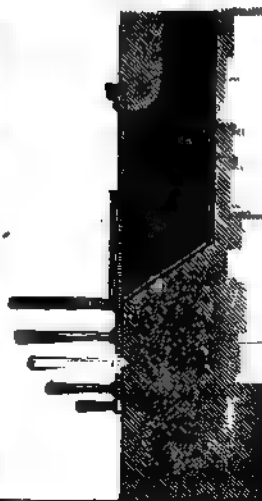
I believe you have seen use with me, the trivance of a sliding plate over the fire, seemingly placed to oppose the rising of the smoke, leaving but a small passage for it, between the edge of the plate and the back of the chimney. It is particularly described, and its uses explained, in my former printed letter, and I mention here only another instance of the tractability of smoke.*

The Staffordshire fire-place, of which a representation is affixed, affords an example of this kind.

Front View.



Side View.



* See Notes at the end of this paper, No. II.

The opening of the chimney is bricked up, with the fore edge of its jambs, leaving open only the grate of the width, and perhaps eight inches high. The grate consists of semicircular bars, their upper bar of the greatest diameter, the others under it smaller and smaller, it has the appearance of half a round basket. It is, with the coals it contains, wholly without the wall that shuts up the chimney; yet the smoke bends and enters the passage above it, the draught being strong, because no air enter that is not obliged to pass near or through the fire, that all that the funnel is filled with is much heated, and of course much rarefied.

Much more of the prosperity of a winter country depends on the plenty and cheapness of fuel, than is generally imagined. In travelling I have observed, that in those parts where the inhabitants can have neither wood, coal, turf, but at excessive prices, the working people live in miserable hovels, ragged, and have nothing comfortable about them. But when fuel is cheap (or where they have the art of managing it to advantage) they are well furnished with necessities, and have decent habitations. The obvious is, that the working hours of such people are the profitable hours, and they who cannot afford sufficient fuel have fewer such hours in the twenty-four, those who have it cheap and plenty: much of domestic work of poor women,

such as spinning, sewing, knitting, and of the in those manufactures require little bodily exercise, cannot well be performed where the fingers are numbed with cold; those people therefore, in cold weather, are induced to go to sooner, and lie longer in a morning than they would do if they could have good fires warm stoves to sit by; and their hours of work sufficient produce the of comfortable subsistence. Those public works, therefore, such roads, canals, &c. by which fuel may be brought cheap into such countries from distant places, of great utility; and those who promote them may be reckoned among the benefactors of mankind.

I have great pleasure in having thus complied with your request, and in the reflection, that the friendship you honor me with, and in which I have ever been so happy, has continued so many years without the smallest interruption. Our distance from each other is now augmented, and nature must put an end to the possibility of my continuing our correspondence: but if consciousness and memory remain in a future state, my esteem and respect for you, my dear friend, will be lasting.

B. FRANKLIN.

Notes for the preceding Letter upon Chimnies.

No. I.

The latest work architecture I have is that intitled *Nut-shells*, which appears to be

written by a very ingenious man, and contains a table of the proportions of the openings of chimnies; but they relate solely to the proportions which gives the rooms, without the smallest regard to the funnels. And he remarks, respecting those proportions, that they are similar to the harmonic divisions of a monochord.¹ It does not indeed lay much stress on this; but it shows that we like the appearance of principles; and where we have the real ones, we have some satisfaction in producing such as are imaginary.

No. II.

The description of the sliding plates here promised, and which have been since brought into use under various names, with immaterial changes, is contained in a former letter to James Bowdoin, Esq. as follows:

TO JAMES BOWDOIN, BOSTON.

DEAR SIR, *London, Dec. 1758.*

I HAVE executed here an easy simple contrivance, that I have long since had in speculation,

¹ "It may be just remarked here, that upon comparing these proportions with those arising from the common divisions of the monochord, it happens that the first answers to unisons; and although the second is a discord, the third is a minor, the fourth is the fifth major, the fifth to the fourth, the sixth to the fifth, and the seventh is the octave." NUT-SHELLS, page 11.

for keeping rooms warmer in cold weather than they generally are, and with less fire. It is this: the opening of the chimney is contracted, by brick-work faced with marble slabs, to about two feet between the jambs, and the breast brought down to within about three feet of the hearth. An iron frame is placed just under the breast, and extending quite to the back of the chimney, a plate of the same metal may slide horizontally backwards and forwards in the grooves on each side of the frame. This plate is just as large as will fill the whole space, and shut the chimney entirely when thrust quite in, which is convenient when there is a fire. Drawing it out, so as to leave a space between its further edge and the back, of about two inches; this space is sufficient for the smoke to pass; and so large a part of the funnel being stopt by the rest of the plate, the passage of warm air out of the room, through the chimney, is obstructed and retarded, and by this means much cold air is prevented from coming in through crevices, to supply its place. This effect is made manifest three ways. First, when the fire burns briskly in cold weather, the howling or whistling noise made by the wind, when it enters the chimney through the crevices, when the chimney is open as usual, is much less when the plate is slid in to its proper distance. Secondly, opening the door of the room about half an inch, and holding your hand against the opening, near the top of the door,

you the cold air coming in against your hand, weakly, if the plate be in. Let another person suddenly draw it out, so to let the air of the go up the chimney with its usual freedom, where chimnies are open, and you immediately feel the cold air rushing in strongly. Thirdly, something be set against the door, just sufficient, when the plate is in, to keep the door nearly shut, by resisting the pressure of the air that would force it open; then, when the plate is drawn out, the door will be forced open by the increased pressure of the outward cold air endeavoring to get in to supply the place of the warm air, that now passes out of the to go up the chimney. In our common open chimnies, half the fuel is wasted, and its effect lost; the air it has warmed being immediately drawn off. Several of my acquaintance having seen this simple machine in my room, have imitated it in their own houses, and are likely to become pretty I describe it thus particularly to you, because I think it would be useful in Boston, where firing is often dear.

Mentioning chimnies put in mind of a property I formerly had occasion to observe in them, which I have not found taken notice of by others; it is, that in the time, when fire is made in the chimnies, there is, nevertheless, a regular draught of air through them, continually passing upwards, from about five or six o'clock in the afternoon, till eight or nine o'clock the morning,

when the current begins to slacken and hesitate a little, about half an hour, and then strongly down again, which it continues to do till towards five in the afternoon, then slackens and hesitates before, going sometimes a little up, a little down, till, in about half an hour, gets into a steady upward current for the night, which continues till eight or nine the next day; the hours varying a little the days lengthen and shorten, and sometimes varying from sudden changes in the weather; if, after being long warm, it should begin to grow cool about noon, while the air coming down the chimney, the current will then change earlier than the usual hour, &c.

This property in chimnies I imagine might turn to account, and render improper, for the future, the old saying, *useless a chimney in*. If the opening of the chimney, from the breast down to the hearth, be closed by a slight moveable frame two, in the manner of doors, covered with canvass, that will the air through, but keep out the flies; and another frame set within upon the hearth, with hooks which to hang joints of meat, fowls, &c. wrapt well in wet linen cloths, three or four fold, I am confident, that if the linen is kept wet, by sprinkling a-day, the meat would be so cooled by the evaporation, carried on continually by means of the passing air, that it would keep a week or more

in the hottest weather. Butter and might likewise be kept cool, vessels bottles covered wet cloths. A shallow tray, keeler, should under the frame to receive any water that might drip from the wetted cloths. I think, too, that this property of chimnies might, by means of smoke-jack vanes, be applied mechanical purposes, where small pretty constant power only wanted.

If you would have my opinion of the cause of this changing current of air in chimnies, it is, in short, as follows. In summer time there is generally great difference in the warmth of the air mid-day and midnight, and, of course, difference of specific gravity in the air, the it is warmed the more it is rarefied. The funnel of a chimney being for the most part surrounded by house, is protected, in great measure, from the direct action of the sun's rays, and also from the coldness of the night air. It thence preserves a middle temperature between the heat of the day and the coldness of the night. This middle temperature it communicates to the air contained in it. If the state of the outward air be cooler than that the funnel of the chimney, it will, by being heavier, force it to rise, and go out the top. What supplies place from below being warmed, in its turn, by the funnel, likewise forced up by the colder and weightier air below, and continued till the next day, when the sun

gradually changes the state of the outward air, makes it first as warm as the funnel of the chimney can make it (when the current begins to hesitate) and afterwards cooler. The funnel, being cooler than the air that enters into it, cools that air, makes it heavier than the outward air, of which it descends; and what succeeds it from above being cooled in its turn, the descending current continues till towards evening, when it again warms and changes its direction from the change of warmth in the outward air, and the nearly remaining middle temperature in the funnel.

Upon this principle, if a house were built behind Beacon-hill, an adit carried from one of the doors into the hill horizontally, and when it meet with a perpendicular shaft sunk from the top, it seems probable to me, that those who lived in the house would constantly, in the heat of the calmest day, have as much cool air passing through the house as they should choose; and the same, though reversed in its current, during the stillest night.

I think, too, this property might be made of use to miners; as, where several shafts or pits are sunk perpendicularly into the earth, communicating at bottom by horizontal passages, which is a common case, if a chimney of thirty or forty feet high be built over one of the shafts, so near to the shaft that the chimney might communicate with the top of the shaft, the air being excluded but what should pass up and down by the shaft, a constant change of

air would by this be produced in a passage below, tending to secure the workmen from those damps, which frequently incommode them. For the fresh air would be almost always going down the open shaft, to go up the chimney, or down the chimney, to rise up the shaft. Let me add one observation more, which is, that if that part of the funnel of a chimney which appears above the roof of a house be pretty long, and have three of its sides exposed to the heat of the sun successively, viz. when he is in the east, in the south, and in the west, while the north side is sheltered by the building from the cool northerly winds; such a chimney will often be heated by the sun, to continue the draught strongly upwards, through the whole twenty-four hours, and often for many days together. If the outside of such a chimney be painted black, the draught will be still greater, and the current stronger.

No. III.

It is said the northern Chinese have a method of warming their ground floors, which is ingenious. Those floors are made of tiles, a foot square and two inches thick, their corners being supported by bricks set at one end, that are a foot long and four inches square; the tiles, too, join into each other, by ridges and hollows along their sides. This forms a hollow under the whole floor, which on one side of the house has an opening into the air





















where a fire is made, and it has a funnel rising from the other side to carry the smoke. The fuel is a sulphurous pitcoal, the smell of which in the room is thus avoided, while the floor, and of course the room, is well warmed. But the underside of the floor must grow foul with soot, and a thick coat of soot prevents much of the direct application of the hot air to the tiles, I conceive that burning the smoke, by obliging it to descend through red coals, would in this construction be very advantageous, as more heat would be given by the flame than by the smoke, and the floor being thereby kept free from soot, would be more heated with less fire. For this purpose I would propose erecting the funnel close to the grate, so as to have only an iron plate between the fire and the funnel, through which plate, the air in the funnel being heated, it will be able to draw well, and force the smoke to descend, as in the figure (Plate IV. Figure 9.) where A is the funnel chimney, B the grate against which the fire is placed, C one of the apertures through which the descending smoke is drawn into the channel D of figure 10, along which channel it is conveyed by a circuitous route as designated by the arrows, until it arrives at the small aperture E, figure 10, through which it enters the funnel F. G in both figures is the iron plate against which the fire is made, which being heated thereby, will rarefy the air in that part of the funnel, and so the smoke

to ascend rapidly. The flame thus dividing from the grate to the right and left, and turning in passages, disposed, as in figure 13, **so** **that** every part of the floor may be visited by it before it **reaches** the funnel F, by the two passages E E, very little of the heat will be lost, and a winter **room** thus rendered very comfortable.

No. IV.

Page 435. *Few can imagine, &c.* It is said the Icelanders have very **much** fuel, chiefly drift wood that **drifts** upon their coast. To receive more advantage from its heat, they make their doors low, and have a stage round the room above the door, like a gallery, wherein the **people** can sit **and** work, the **people** read or write, &c. The roof being tight, the warm air is confined by it, and kept from rising higher and escaping; and the cold air, which enters **the** house when the door **is** opened, cannot rise above the level of the top of the door, because it is heavier than the **warm** air above the door, and so those in the gallery **are** not incommoded by it. Some of **these** too lofty **rooms** might have a stage so constructed **as** to make **a** temporary gallery above, for the winter, to be taken away in summer. Sedentary people would find much comfort there **in** cold weather.

No. V.

Page 451. *Where they have the art of managing it, &c.* In  houses of the lower people among the northern nations of Europe, and among  poorer sort of Germans in Pennsylvania, I have observed this construction, which appears very advantageous. (Plate IV. Figure 11.) A  kitchen with its chimney;  iron stove in the stove-room. In  of the chimney is  hole through the back into the stove, to put in fuel, and another hole above it to let the smoke of the stove come back into the chimney. As soon  the cooking is over, the brands in the kitchen chimney are put through the hole to supply the stove,  that there is seldom more than one fire burning  a time. In the floor  the stove-room is a small trap-door, to let the  air rise occasionally into the chamber. Thus the whole house is warmed at little expense of wood, and the stove- kept constantly warm;  that in the coldest winter nights, they can work late, and find the room still comfortable when they rise to work early. An English farmer  America, who makes great fires in large open chimnies, needs the  stant employment of one man to cut and haul wood for supplying them; and  draught of cold air to them is  strong, that the  of his family are frozen while they are scorching their faces, and the  is never warm, so  little sedentary

work can be done by them in winter. The difference in **the** article alone of economy shall, in a **few** years, enable **the** German to buy out the Englishman, and **take** possession of his plantation.

Miscellaneous Observations.

Chimnies, whose funnels go up in the north wall of **a** house and **are** exposed to the north winds, **are** not so apt to draw well **as** those in **a** south wall; because, when rendered cold by those winds, they draw downwards.

Chimnies, enclosed in the body of a house, **are** **warmer** than those whose funnels **are** exposed in cold walls.

Chimnies in stacks are apt to draw better than separate funnels, because the funnels that have **funnels** **in** them warm the others, in some degree, that have **none**.

One of the funnels, in a house I once occupied, **had** a particular funnel joined to the south side of the stack, so that three of its sides **were** exposed **to the sun** in the **middle** of the day, viz. (Plate IV. Figure 12.) the east side **E** during the morning, the south side **S** in **the** middle part of the day, **and** the west side **W** during the afternoon, while **the** north side was sheltered by the stack from **the** cold winds. This funnel, which came from **the** ground-floor, and **rose** **a** considerable height above

the roof, was constantly in a strong drawing day and night, winter and summer.

Blackening of funnels, exposed to the sun, would probably make them draw still stronger.

In Paris I saw a fire-place so ingeniously contrived as to warm conveniently two rooms, a bed-chamber and a study. The funnel was the fire round. The fire-place was of iron, (Plate IV. Figure 13.) having an upright back A, and two horizontal semicircular plates B C, the whole so ordered as to turn on the pivots D E. The plate B always stopped that part of the round funnel that was next to the room without fire, while the other half of the funnel was the fire always open. By this means a servant in the morning could make a fire on the hearth C, then in the study, without disturbing the master by going into the chamber; and the master, when he rose, could with a touch of his foot turn the chimney on its pivots, and bring the fire into his chamber, keep it there as long as he wanted it, and turn it again when he went out, into his study. The room which had no fire in it was also warmed by the heat coming through the back plate, spreading in the room, as the smoke went up the chimney.

DESCRIPTION OF A STOVE BURNING
PITCOAL, AND CONSUMING ALL ITS SMOKE.

WRITTEN AT SEA, 1785.

TOWARDS the end of the last century an ingenious French philosopher, whose name I sorry I cannot recollect, exhibited an experiment to show, that very offensive things might be burnt in the middle of a chamber, such as woollen rags, feathers, &c. without creating the least smoke or smell. The machine in which it was made, if I remember right, was of this form, (see Plate VI. Figure 1.) made of plate iron. Some clear-burning charcoals were put into the opening of the short tube A, and supported there by the grate B. The air, as soon as the tubes grew warm, would ascend in the longer leg C, and go out at D; consequently air must enter at A, descending to B. In this course it must be heated by the burning coals through which it passed, and rise forcibly in the longer tube, in proportion to its degree of heat, rarefaction, and length of that tube. For such a machine is a kind of inverted siphon; and as the greater weight of water in the longer leg of a common siphon in descending is accompanied by the ascent of the fluid in the shorter; so, in this inverted siphon, the greater quantity of levity of air in the longer leg, in rising is accompanied by the descent of air in the shorter. The things to be burned being laid on the hot

coals at A, the smoke must descend through those coals, be converted into flame, which, after destroying the offensive smell, comes out at the end of the longer tube ■ heated air.

Whoever would repeat this experiment with success, must take care that the part A B, of the short tube, be quite full of burning coals, ■ that no part of the smoke may descend and pass by them without going through them, and being converted into flame; and that the longer tube be ■ heated ■ that the current of ascending hot air is established in it before the things to be burnt are laid on the coals; otherwise there will be a disappointment.

It does not appear either in the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences, or Philosophical Transactions of the English Royal Society, that any improvement ■ made of this ingenious experiment, by applying it to useful purposes. But there is a German book, intitled *Vulcanus Famulans*, by John George Leutmann, P. D. printed at Wirtemberg in 1723, which describes, among ■ great variety of other stoves for warming rooms, one, which ■ to have been formed ■ the ■ principle, and probably from the hint thereby given, though the French experiment is not mentioned. This book being scarce, I have translated the chapter describing the stove, viz.

*"Vulcanus Famulans, by John George Leutmann, P.D.
Wirtemberg, 1723.*

"CHAP. VII.

"ON A STOVE, WHICH DRAWS DOWNWARDS.

"Here follows the description of a sort of stove, which can easily be removed and again replaced at pleasure. This drives the fire down under itself, and gives a smoke, but however a very unwholesome vapor.

"In the figure, G is an iron vessel like a funnel, (Plate VI, Figure 20.) in diameter at the top about twelve inches, at the bottom near the grate about five inches; its height twelve inches. This is set in the barrel C, which is ten inches diameter and two feet long, closed at each end E E. From one end rises a pipe or flue about four inches diameter, in which other pieces of pipe are set, which gradually contracted to D, where the opening is but about two inches. Those pipes must together be at least four feet high. B is an iron grate. F F are iron handles guarded with wood, by which the stove is to be lifted and moved. It stands on three legs. Care must be taken to stop well all the joints, that no smoke may leak through.

"When this stove is to be used, it must first be carried into the kitchen and placed in the chimney near the fire. There burning wood must be laid and left upon its grate till the barrel C is warm, and the smoke no longer rises at A, but descends

towards C. Then it is to be carried into the room which it is to warm. When once the barrel C is warm, fresh wood may be thrown into the vessel A ■ often ■ one pleases; the flame descends and without smoke, which is so consumed that only ■ vapor passes out at D.

■ As this vapor is unwholesome, and affects the head, one may be freed from it, by fixing in the wall of the room an inverted funnel, such as people use to hang over lamps, through which their smoke goes out ■ through a chimney. This funnel carries out all the vapor cleverly, so that one finds no inconvenience from it, even though the opening D be placed a span below the mouth of the said funnel G. The neck of the funnel is better when made gradually bending, than if turned in a right angle.

“The cause of the draught downwards in the stove is the pressure of the outward air, which, falling into the vessel A in ■ column of twelve inches diameter, finds only ■ resisting passage at the grate B, of five inches, and ■ at D, of two inches, which are much too weak to drive it back again; besides, A stands much higher than B, and so the pressure on it is greater and ■ forcible, and beats down the frame to that part where it finds the least resistance. Carrying the machine first to the kitchen fire for preparation, is on this account, that in the beginning the fire and smoke naturally ascend, ■ the air in the close

D, figure 6, which hole stands the F, figure 8, which has a corresponding hole two inches diameter through its bottom.

The top of the vase opens at O, O, O, figure 8, and turns back upon a hinge behind when coals are to be put in; the vase has a grate within at NN of cast iron H, figure 9, and a hole in the top, one and a half inches diameter, to admit air, and to receive the ornamental brass gilt flame M, figure 10, which stands in that hole, and, being itself hollow and open, suffers air to pass through it into the fire.

G, figure 11, is a drawer of plate iron that slips in between in the partitions 2 and 3, figure 2, to receive the falling ashes. It is concealed when small sliding plates Y Y, figure 12, shut together.

I, I, I, I, figure 8, is a niche built of brick in the chimney and plastered. It closes the chimney vase, but leaves two funnels, in each corner, communicating with the bottom box K K, figure






<i>Dimensions of the Parts.</i>	FEET.	IN.
Front of the bottom box, - -	1	1
Height of its partitions, - - -	0	4½
Length of No. 1, 2, 3, and 4, each, -	1	3
Length of No. 5 and 6, each, - -	0	8½
Length of the passage between No. 2 and 3, -	0	6
Breadth of other each, - - -	1	3½
Breadth of the grate, - - -	0	8
Length of ditto, - - -	0	8


		IN.
Bottom moulding of box C, square, -	1	0
Height of the sides of ditto, -	0	■
Length of the back side, -	0	10
Length of the right and left sides, each, -	0	9½
Length of the front plate E, where longest, -	0	11
The cover D, square, -	0	■
■ in ditto, diameter, -	0	■
Sliding plates Y Y, their length, each, -	1	0
....., their breadth, each, -	0	4½
Drawer G, its length, -	0	■
..... breadth, -	0	5½
..... depth, -	0	4
..... depth of its further end only, -	0	1
Grate H in the vase, its diameter to the extremity of its knobs, -	0	5
Thickness of the bars ■ top, -	0	0½
..... at bottom, less, -	0	0
Depth of the bars at ■ top, -	0	0½
Height of the vase, -	1	6
Diameter of the opening O, O, in the clear, -	0	3
Diameter of the air-hole ■ top, -	0	1½
..... of the flame-hole at bottom, -	0	2

To fix this machine.



Spread mortar ■ the hearth to bed the bottom plate A, then lay that plate level, equally distant from each jamb, and projecting out ■ far as you think proper. Then putting ■ Windsor loam in the grooves of the cover B, lay that ■ : trying the sliding plates Y Y, to ■ if they ■ freely in the grooves Z Z, V V, designed for them.

Then begin to ■ the niche, observing to




leave the square corners of the chimney unfilled ; for they  to be funnels. And observe also to leave a free open communication between the passages  K K, and the bottom of those funnels, and mind to close the chimney above the top of the niche, that  air may pass up that way. The  back of the niche will rest on the circular iron partition 1 A 4, figure 2 : then with a little loam, put  the box C over the grate, the open side of the box in front.

Then, with loam in three of its grooves, the grooves R R being left clean, and brought directly  the groove Q Q in the box, put on the cover D, trying the front plate E, to see if it slides freely in those grooves.

Lastly, set on the vase, which has small holes in the moulding of its bottom to receive two iron pins that rise out of the plate D at I I, for the better keeping it steady.

Then putting in the grate H, which rests on  three knobs h h h against the inside of the vase, and slipping the drawer into its place ; the machine is  for use.

To use it.

Let the first fire be made after eight in the  ing or before eight in the morning, for at those times and between those hours  night, there is usually a draught up  chimney, though it has long been without fire ; but between those hours in the

day there is often, in ■ cold chimney, a draught downwards, when, if you attempt to kindle a fire, the smoke will ■■■■ into the ■■■■

But to be certain of your proper time, hold ■ flame over the air-hole at the top. If the flame is drawn strongly down for ■ continuance, without whiffing, you may begin to kindle a fire.

First put in ■ few charcoals ■ the grate H.

Lay ■■■■ small sticks ■ the charcoals.

Lay ■■■■ pieces of paper on the sticks.

Kindle the paper with a candle.

Then shut down the top, and the air will pass down through the air-hole ; blow the flame of the paper down through the sticks, kindle them, and their flame passing lower kindles the charcoal.

When the charcoal is well kindled, lay on it the sea-coals, observing not to choak the fire by putting on too much at first.

The flame descending through the hole in the bottom of the vase, and that in plate D into the box C, passes down farther through the grate W W in plate B 1, then passes horizontally towards the back of the chimney ; there dividing and turning to the right and left, ■■■■ part of it passes round the far end of the partition 2, then coming forward it turns round the near end of partition 1, then moving backward it arrives at the opening into the bottom of one of the upright ■■■■ funnels behind the niche, through which ■■ ascends into the chimney, thus heating that half of the box, and that

side of the niche. The other part of the divided flame passes round the far end of partition 3, round the end of partition 4, and into and up the other corner funnel, thus heating the other half of the box, and the other side of the niche. The itself, and the box C, will also be very hot, and the air surrounding them being heated, and rising, it cannot get into the chimney, it spreads into the room, colder air succeeding is warmed in its turn, rises and spreads, till by the continual circulation the whole is warmed.

If you should have occasion to make your first fire at hours not so convenient as those above mentioned, and when the chimney does not draw, do not begin it in the vase, but in one or of the passages of the lower plate, first covering the mouth of the vase. After the chimney has drawn while with the fire thus low, and begins to be little warm, you may close those passages and kindle another fire in the box C, leaving its sliding shutter a little open; and when you find after some time that the chimney being warmed draws forcibly, you may shut that passage, open your vase, and kindle your fire there, as above directed. The chimney, well warmed by the first day's fire, will continue to draw constantly all winter, if fires made daily.

You will, in the management of your fire, have need of the following implements :

A pair of small light tongs, twelve ■ fifteen inches long, plate, figure 13.

A light poker about the ■ length, with ■ flat broad point, figure 14.

A rake to draw ashes out of the passages of the lower plate, where the lighter kind escaping the ash-box will gather by degrees, and perhaps ■ in ■ week or ten days require being removed, figure 15.

And a fork with its prongs wide enough to slip on the neck of the vase cover, in order to raise and open it when hot, to put in fresh coals, figure 16.

In the management of this stove there are certain precautions to be observed, at first with attention, till they become habitual. To avoid the inconvenience of smoke, ■ that the grate H be clear before you begin to light a fresh fire. If you find it clogged with cinders and ashes, turn it up with your tongs, and let them fall upon the grate below; the ashes will go through it, and the cinders may be raked off and returned into the ■ when you would burn them. Then see that all the sliding plates ■ in their places and close shut, that ■ air may enter the stove but through the round opening at the top of the vase. And to avoid the inconvenience of dust from the ashes, let the ash-drawer be taken out of the room to ■ emptied: and when you rake the passages, do it when the draught of the air is strong inwards, and

put the ashes carefully into the ash-box, that ■ maintaining in its place.

If, being about ■ go abroad, you would prevent your fire burning in your absence, you may do it by taking the brass flame from the top of the vase, and covering the passage with ■ round tin plate, which will prevent the entry of more air than barely sufficient to keep ■ few of the coals alive. When you return, though some hours absent, by taking off the tin plate and admitting the air, your fire will ■ be recovered.

The effect of this machine, well managed, is to burn not only the coals, but all the smoke of the coals, so that while the fire is burning, if you go out and observe the top of your chimney, you will see no smoke issuing, nor any thing but clear warm air, which, as usual, makes the bodies ■ through it appear waving.

But let ■ imagine from this, that it may be a ■ for bad or smoky chimnies, much less that, ■ it burns the smoke, it may be used in ■ room that has no chimney. It is by the help of ■ good chimney, the higher the better, that it produces its effect; and though ■ flue of plate iron sufficiently high might be raised in ■ very lofty room, the management to prevent all disagreeable vapor would be too nice for ■ practice, and small ■ would have unpleasing consequences.

It is certain that clean iron yields no offensive smell when heated. Whatever of ■ kind you

perceive where there are iron stoves, proceeds therefore from ■■■■ foulness burning or fuming ■■■■ their surface. They should therefore never be spit upon, or greased, nor should any dust be suffered to lie upon them. But as the greatest care will not always prevent these things, it ■ well once a week to wash the stove with soap lees and ■ brush, rinsing it with clean water.

The Advantages of this Stove.

1. The chimney does not grow foul, nor ever need sweeping ; for ■■ no smoke enters it, no soot ■■■■ form in it.

2. The air heated over common fires instantly quits the room and goes up the chimney with the smoke ; but in the stove, it is obliged to descend in flame, and pass through the long winding horizontal passages, communicating its heat to a body of iron plate, which having thus time to receive the heat, communicates the same to the air of the room, and thereby warms it to ■ greater degree.

3. The whole of the fuel is consumed by being turned into flame, and you have the benefit of its heat ; whereas in ■■■■■ chimnies ■ great part goes away in smoke, which you ■■ ■■ it rises, but ■ affords you ■■ rays of warmth. One may obtain some notion of the quantity of fuel thus wasted in smoke, by reflecting ■■ the quantity of soot that ■ few weeks' firing will lodge against the sides of the chimney, ■■■■ yet this is formed only

of those particles of the column of smoke that happen to touch the sides in its ascent. How much more must have passed off in the air! And we know that this soot is still fuel: for it will burn and flame as such, and when hard caked together is indeed very like and almost as solid as the coal it proceeds from. The destruction of your fuel goes ■ nearly in the same quantity whether in smoke ■ in flame: but there is no comparison in the difference of heat given. Observe when fresh coals are first put on your fire, what a body of smoke arises. This smoke is for ■ long time too cold to take flame. If you then plunge a burning candle into it, the candle, instead of inflaming the smoke, will instantly be itself extinguished. Smoke must have a certain degree of heat to be inflammable. As soon as it has acquired that degree, the approach of a candle will inflame the whole body, and you will be very sensible of the difference of the heat it gives. A still easier experiment may be made with the candle itself. Hold your hand ■ the side of its flame, and observe the heat it gives; then blow it out, the hand remaining in the ■ place, and observe what heat may be given by the smoke that rises from the still burning snuff. You will find it very little. And yet that smoke has in it the substance of so much flame, and will instantly produce it, if you hold another candle above it so ■ to kindle it. Now the smoke from the fresh coals laid on this stove, instead of ascend-

ing and leaving the fire while too cold to burn, being obliged to descend through the burning coals, receives among them that degree of heat which converts it into flame, and the heat of that flame is communicated to the air of the room, as above explained.

4. The flame from the fresh coals laid in this stove, descending through the coals already ignited, preserves them long from consuming, and continues them in the state of red coals as long as the flame continues that surrounds them, by which means the fires made in this stove are of much longer duration than in any other, and fewer coals are therefore necessary for a day. This is a very material advantage indeed. That flame should be a kind of *pickle*, to preserve burning coals from consuming, may seem a paradox to many, and very unlikely to be true, as it appeared to me the first time I observed the fact. I must therefore relate the circumstances, and shall mention an easy experiment, by which my reader may be in possession of every thing necessary to the understanding of it. In the first trial I made of this kind of stove, which I constructed of thin plate iron, I had, instead of the vase, a kind of inverted pyramid like a mill-hopper; and fearing at first that the small grate contained in it might be clogged by cinders, and the passage of the flame sometimes obstructed, I ordered a little door at the grate, by means of which I might on occasion

clear it: though after the stove was made, and before I tried it, I began to think this precaution superfluous, from my imagination, that the flame being contracted in the upper part where the grate was placed, would be more powerful in consuming what it should there meet with, and that any cinders between the bars would be presently destroyed and the passage opened. After the stove was fixed and in action, I had a pleasure now and then in opening that door a little, to see through the crevice how the flame descended among the red coals; and observing a single coal lodged between the bars in the middle of the focus, my fancy took me to observe with my watch in how short a time it would be consumed. I looked at it long without perceiving it to be all diminished, which surprised me greatly. At length it occurred to me, that I and many others had seen the same things thousands of times, in the conservation of the red coal formed in the snuff of a burning candle, which while enveloped in flame, and thereby prevented from the contact of passing air, is long continued, and augments instead of diminishing, so that we are often obliged to remove it by the snuffers, and bend it out of the flame into the air, where it consumes presently in ashes. I then supposed, that to a body by fire, passing air was necessary to receive and carry off the separated particles of the body: that the air passing in the flame of my stove, and

in the flame of a candle, being already saturated with such particles, could not receive more, and therefore left the coal undiminished as long as the outward air was prevented from coming to it by the surrounding flame, which kept it in a situation somewhat like that of charcoal in a well-luted crucible, which, though long kept in a strong fire, was out unconsumed.






An easy experiment will satisfy any of this conserving power of flame enveloping red coal. Take a small stick of deal or other wood, the size of a goose-quill, and hold it horizontally and steadily in the flame of the candle above the wick, without touching it, but in the body of the flame. The wood will first be inflamed, and burn beyond the edge of the flame of the candle, perhaps a quarter of an inch. When the flame of the wood goes out, it will leave a red coal at the end of the stick, part of which will be in the flame of the candle, and part out in the air. In a minute or two you will perceive the coal in the air diminish gradually, as to form a neck; while the part in the flame continues of its first size, and the neck being quite consumed, it drops off; and by rolling it between your fingers when extinguished, you will find it still a solid coal.




However, a stove cannot be always putting on fresh fuel in this stove to furnish a continual fire as is done in a candle, the air in the intervals of the fire gets the cold and consumes them.

Yet the conservation while it lasted, ■ much delayed the consumption of the coals, that two fires, one made in the morning, and the other in the afternoon, each made by only ■ hatful of coals, ■■■■ sufficient to keep my writing-room, about sixteen feet square and ten high, warm ■ whole day. The fire kindled at seven in the morning would burn till noon; and all the iron of the machine with the walls of the niche being thereby heated, the room kept ■■■■ till evening, when another smaller fire kindled, kept it ■■■■ till midnight.

Instead of the sliding plate E, which shuts the front of the box C, I sometimes used another which had a pane of glass, or, which is better, of Muscovy talc, that the flame might be ■■■■ descending from the bottom of the vase and passing in a column through the box C into the cavities of the bottom plate, like water falling from a funnel, admirable to such ■ are not acquainted with the nature of the machine, and in itself a pleasing spectacle.





Every utensil, however properly contrived to ■■■■ its purpose, requires ■■■■ practice before it can be used adroitly. Put into the hands of a man for the first time a gimlet ■ a hammer (very simple instruments), and ■■■■ him the use of them, he shall neither bore a hole ■■■■ drive ■ nail with ■■■■ dexterity and ■■■■ of another who has been accustomed to handle them. The beginner there-

















fore in the  of this machine, will do well not to be discouraged with little accidents that may arise at first from his want of experience. Being somewhat complex, it requires, as already said, a variety of attentions; habit will render them unnecessary. And the studious  who is much in his chamber, and has a pleasure in managing his own fire, will  find this a machine most comfortable and delightful. To others who leave their fires to the care of ignorant servants, I do not recommend it. They will with difficulty acquire the knowledge necessary, and will make frequent blunders that will fill your room with smoke. It is therefore by no means fit for common use in families. It may be advisable to begin with the flaming kind of stone coal, which is large, and, not caking together, is not so apt to clog the grate. After some  perience, any kind of coal may be used, and with this advantage, that a smell,  from the most sulphurous kind, can come into your room, the current of air being constantly into the vase, where too that smell is all consumed.

The vase form  chosen as being elegant in itself, and very proper for burning of coals: where wood is the usual fuel, and must be burned in pieces of  length, a long square chest may be substituted, in which (Plate VI. figure 17.) A is the cover opening by a hinge behind, B the grate, C the hearth-box with its divisions as in the other, D the plan of the chest, E the long  grate.

This I have tried, the machine was completed in 1771, and used by me in London three winters, and one afterwards in America, much to my satisfaction; and I have not yet thought of any improvement it may be capable of, though such may occur to others. For common use, while in France, I have contrived another grate for coals, which has in part the same property of burning the smoke and preserving the red coals longer by the flame, though not so completely as the vase, yet sufficiently to be very useful, which I shall describe as follows.

A (Plate vi. figure 18.) is a round grate, a foot (French) in diameter, and eight inches deep between the bars and the back; the sides and back of plate iron; the sides having holes of half an inch diameter, distant three or four inches from each other, to let in air for enlivening the fire. The back without holes. The sides do not meet at top nor bottom by eight inches: that square is filled by grates of small bars crossing front to back to let in air below, and let out the smoke and flame above. The three middle bars of the front grate are fixed; the upper and lower may be taken out and put in at pleasure, when hot, with a pair of pincers. This round grate turns upon an axis, supported by the crotchet B, the stem of which is an inverted conical tube five inches deep, which comes on as many inches upon a pin that fits it, the whole which is kept upright in a

cast iron plate D, that lies upon the hearth ; in the middle of the top and bottom grates  small upright pieces E E, about  inch high, which, 'as the whole is turned on its axis, stop  when the grate is perpendicular. Figure  is another view of the same machine.

In making the first fire in a morning with this grate, there is nothing particular to be observed.  is made  in other grates, the coals being put in above, after taking out the upper bar, and  placing it when they  in. The round figure of the fire, when thoroughly kindled, is agreeable ;  represents the great giver of warmth to  system. As it burns down and leaves a vacancy above, which you would  with fresh coals, the upper bar is to be taken out, and afterwards replaced. The fresh coals, while the grate continues in  position, will throw up,  usual, a body of thick smoke. But every one accustomed to coal fires in  grates must have observed, that pieces of fresh coal, stuck in below among the red coals, have their smoke  heated  that it becomes flame as fast  it is produced, which flame rises among the coals and enlivens the appearance of the fire. Here then is the use of this swivel grate. By a push with your tongs  poker, you turn it on its pin till it faces the back of the chimney, then turn it  on its axis gently till it again faces the room, whereby  the fresh coals will be found under the live coals, and the greater part of

the smoke arising from the fresh coals will in its passage through the live ones be heated ■ as to be converted into flame: whence you have much more heat from them, and your red coals are longer preserved from consuming. I conceive this construction, though not ■ complete ■ consumer of all the smoke ■ the vase, yet to be fitter for common use, and very advantageous. It gives too a full sight of the fire, always a pleasing object, which ■ have not in the other. It may with ■ touch be turned ■ or less from any ■ of the company that desires to have less of its heat, or presented full to one just come out of the cold. And supported in a horizontal position, ■ tea-kettle may be boiled on it.

The author's description of his Pennsylvania fire-place, first published in 1744, having fallen into the hands of workmen in Europe, who did not, it seems, well comprehend the principles of that machine, it ■ much disfigured in their imitations of it; and ■ of its main intentions, that of admitting a sufficient quantity of fresh air warmed in entering through the air-box, nearly defeated, by ■ pretended improvement, in lessening its passage to make more room for coals in a grate. On pretence of such improvements, they obtained patents for the invention, and for ■ while made great profits by the sale, till the public became sensible of that defect, in the expected operation. If the same thing should be attempted with this vase

stove, it will be well for the buyer to examine thoroughly such pretended improvements, lest, being the mere productions of ignorance, they diminish or defeat the advantages of the machine, and produce inconvenience and disappointment.

The method of burning smoke, by obliging it to descend through hot coals, may be of great use in heating the walls of a hot-house. In the common way, the horizontal passages or flues that are made in the walls, lose a great deal of their effect when they come to be foul with soot; for a thick blanket-like lining of soot prevents much of the hot air from touching and heating the brick work in its passage, so that more fire must be made as the flue grows fouler: but by burning the smoke they are kept always clean. The same method may also be of great advantage to those businesses in which large coppers or caldrons are to be heated.

LETTER FIFTY IN NAVIGATION.

TO MONS. ALPHONSE LE ROY, AT PARIS.

At sea, on board the London Packet, Capt. Truxton.

SIR,

August, 1785.

YOUR learned writings on the navigation of the ancients, which contain a great deal of curious information, and your very ingenious contrivances for improving the modern sails, (*voilure*), of which I have with great pleasure a successful trial

the river Seine, have induced me to submit your consideration and judgment some thoughts I have had on the latter subject.

Those mathematicians who have endeavored to improve the swiftness of vessels, by calculating find the form of least resistance, to have considered a ship a body moving through one fluid only, the water; and to have given little attention to the circumstances of her moving through another fluid, the air. It is true, that when a vessel sails right before the wind, this circumstance is of no importance, because the wind goes with her; but in every deviation from that course, the resistance of the air is something, and becomes greater in proportion that deviation increases. I waive present the consideration of those different degrees of resistance given by the air to that part of the hull which is above water, and confine myself to that given to the sails; for their motion through the air is resisted by the air, the motion of the hull through the water is resisted by the water, though with less force, the air is a lighter fluid. And to simplify this discussion as much as possible, I would situation only, to wit, that of the wind upon the beam, the ship's course being directly the wind: and I would suppose the sail set in an angle of 45 degrees with the keel, as in the following figure. (Plate VII. fig. 1.)

A B represents the body of the vessel, C D the position of the sail, E E E the direction of the wind,

Fig. 11 the line of motion. In observing this figure **Fig. 11** will appear, that **Fig. 11** much of the body of the **Fig. 11** sail as is immersed in the water must, to go forward, **Fig. 11** out of its way what water it meets with between the pricked lines FF. And the sail, to go forward, must move out of its way all the air its whole dimension meets with between the pricked lines CG and DG. Thus both the fluids give resistance to the motion, each in proportion to the quantity of matter contained in the dimensions to be removed. And though the air is vastly lighter than the water, and therefore more easily removed, yet the dimension being much greater its effect is very considerable.

It is true that in the **Fig. 11** stated, the resistance given by the air between those lines to the motion of the sail, is not apparent to the eye, because the greater force of the wind, which strikes it in the direction EEE, overpowers its effect and keeps the sail full in the curve a, a, a, a, a. But suppose the wind to cease, and the vessel in a calm to be impelled with the **Fig. 11** swiftness by oars, the sail would then appear **Fig. 11** in the contrary curve, b, b, b, b, b, when prudent **Fig. 11** would immediately perceive, that the air resisted its motion, and would order it to be taken in.

Is there any possible means of diminishing **Fig. 11** resistance, while the same quantity of sail is exposed to the action of **Fig. 11** wind, and therefore the **Fig. 11** from it? I think there is, and

that it may be done by dividing the sail into a number of parts, and placing those parts in a line one behind the other; thus instead of a sail extending from C to D, figure 2, if four sails, containing together the same quantity of canvas, were placed as in figure 3, each having one quarter of the dimensions of the great sail, and exposing a quarter of its surface to the wind, they would give a quarter of its force; so that the whole force obtained from the wind would be the same, while the resistance from the air would be nearly reduced to the space between the pricked lines *ab* and *cd*, before the foremost sail.

It may perhaps be doubted whether the resistance from the air would be diminished; since possibly each of the following small sails having also air before it, which must be removed, the resistance on the whole would be the same.

This is then a matter to be determined by experiment. I will mention that I many years since made with a small sail for another purpose; and I will propose another small one easily made. If that too succeeds, I should think it worth while to make a larger, though at some expense, on a river boat; and perhaps time, and the improvements experience will afford, may make it applicable with advantage to larger vessels.

Having in my kitchen chimney a round pipe of eight inches diameter, through which was a constant steady current of air, increasing or decreasing

nishing only ■ the fire increased ■ diminished, I contrived to place my jack so as to receive the current; and taking off the fliers, I fixed in their stead on the ■ pivot, ■ round tin plate of nearly the same diameter with the hole; and having cut it in radial lines almost to the centre, ■ ■ to have six equal vanes, I gave to each of them the obliquity of forty-five degrees. They moved round, without the weight, by the impression only of the current of air, but too slowly for the purpose of roasting. I suspected that the air struck by the back of each vane might possibly by its resistance retard the motion; and to try this, I cut each of them into two, and I placed the twelve, each having the same obliquity, in ■ line behind each other, when I perceived a great augmentation in its velocity, which encouraged ■ to divide them ■ ■ more, and continuing the same obliquity, I placed the twenty-four behind each other in ■ line, when the force of the wind being the same, and the surface of vane the same, they moved round with much greater rapidity, and perfectly answered my purpose.

The second experiment that I propose, is to take two playing cards of the same dimensions, and cut ■ of them transversely into eight equal pieces; then with ■ needle string them upon two threads one near each end, and place them so upon the threads that, when hung up, they may be one exactly ■ the other, at ■ distance equal to their

breadth, each in a horizontal position; and a small weight, such as a bird-shot, be hung under them, to make them fall in a straight line when loose. Suspend also the whole card by from its four corners, and hang to it an equal weight, so to draw it downwards when let fall, its whole breadth pressing against the air. Let those two bodies be attached, one of them to one end of a thread a yard long, the other to the other end. Extend a twine under the ceiling of a room, and put through it at thirty inches' distance two pins bent in the form of fish-hooks. On these two hooks hang the two bodies, the thread that connects them extending parallel to the twine, which thread being cut, they must begin to fall at the same instant. If they take equal time in falling to the floor, it is a proof that the resistance of the air is in both equal. If the whole card requires a longer time, it shows that the sum of the resistances to the pieces of the cut card is not equal to the resistance of the whole one.¹

This principle so far confirmed, I would proceed to make a larger experiment with a shallop, which I would rig in this manner. Same plate, fig. 4.

A B is a long boom, from which are hoisted seven jibs, a, b, c, d, e, f, g, each a seventh part of the

¹ The motion of the vessel made it inconvenient to try this simple experiment at sea, when the proposal of it was made. But it has been tried since we came on shore, and succeeded as the

whole dimensions, and as much will fill the whole space when set in an angle of forty-five degrees, so that they may lap when going before wind, and hold when going large. Thus rigged, when going right before the wind, the boom should be brought at right angles with the keel, by means of the sheet ropes C D, and all the sails hauled flat to the boom.

These positions of boom and sails to be varied the wind quarters. But when the wind is the beam, when you would turn to windward, the boom is be hauled right fore and aft, and the sails trimmed according as the wind is more or less against your course.

It seems to me that the management of a shallop rigged would be very easy, the sails being run up and down separately, that more less sail may be made at pleasure ; and I imagine, that there being full much sail exposed to the force of wind which impels the vessel in its course, as if the whole in one piece, and the resistance of the dead air against the foreside of the sail being diminished, the advantage of swiftness would be very considerable ; besides that the vessel would lie nearer the wind.

 on the subject of improvements in navigation, permit to detain you a little longer with a small relative observation. Being, in one of my voyages, with merchant-ships under convoy of a frigate at anchor Torbay, waiting

for a wind to go to the westward, it is fair, but brought in with it a considerable swell. A signal was given for weighing, and they put to all together, but three of the ships left their anchors, their cables parting just at their anchors a-peak. Our cable held, and they got up the anchor; but the shocks the ship felt before the anchor got loose from the ground made me reflect what might possibly have caused the breaking of the other cables; and I imagined it might be the short bending of the cable just without the hause-hole, from a horizontal to an almost vertical position, and the sudden violent jerk it receives by the rising of the head of the ship on the swell of a wave while in that position. For example, suppose a vessel hove up so as to have her head nearly over her anchor, which still keeps its hold, perhaps in a tough bottom; if it were calm, the cable still out would form nearly a perpendicular line, measuring the distance between the hause-hole and the anchor; but if there is a swell, her head in the trough of the sea will fall below the level, and when lifted on the swell will be much above it. In the first case the cable will hang loose and bend perhaps as in figure 5. In the second case, figure 6, the cable will be drawn straight with a jerk, must sustain the whole force of the rising ship, and must either loosen the anchor, resist the rising force of the ship, or break. But why does it break at the hause-hole?

Let ■ suppose it a cable of three inches diameter, and represented by figure 7. If this cable ■ to be bent round the corner A, it is evident that either the part, of the triangle contained between the let- ■ a, b, c, must stretch considerably, and those most that ■ nearest the surface ; or, that the parts between d, e, f, must be compressed ; ■ both, which ■ probably happens. In this ■ the lower half of the thickness affords ■ strength against the jerk, it not being strained ; the upper half bears the whole, and the yarns near the upper surface being first and most strained, break first, and the next yarns follow ; for in this bent situation they cannot bear the strain altogether, and each contributes its strength to the whole, ■ they do when the cable is strained in a straight line.

To remedy this, methinks it would be well to have ■ kind of large pulley wheel, fixed in the house-hole, suppose of two feet diameter, over which the cable might pass ; and being there bent gradually to the round of the wheel, would thereby be more equally strained, and better able to bear the jerk, which may ■ the anchor, and by that ■ in the course of the voyage to ■ the ship.

One maritime observation ■ shall finish this letter. ■ have been a reader of newspapers now near seventy years, and I think few years pass without ■ account of some vessel met with at sea, ■ no living soul ■ board, and so many feet of water ■ her hold, which vessel has nevertheless

been saved and brought into port : and when not met with ■ sea, such forsaken vessels have ■ come ashore on some coast. The crews, who have taken to their boats, and thus abandoned such vessels, ■ sometimes met with and taken up ■ ■ by other ships, sometimes reach ■ coast, and are sometimes never heard of. Those ■ give an account of quitting their vessels generally say, that she sprung ■ leak, that they pumped ■ ■ time, that the water continued to rise upon them, and that, despairing to ■ her, they had quitted her lest they should go down with her. It ■ by the event that this fear was not always well-founded, and I have endeavored to guess ■ the reason of the people's too hasty discouragement.

When a vessel springs ■ leak ■ her bottom, the water enters with all the force given by the weight of the column of water without, which force is in proportion to the difference of level between the water without and that within. It enters therefore with ■ force at first and in greater quantity, than it ■ afterwards when the water within is higher. The bottom of the vessel too is narrower, ■ that the ■ quantity of water coming into that narrow part, rises faster than when the space for it to flow is larger. This helps to terrify. But as the quantity entering is less and less as the ■ without and within become more nearly equal in height, the pumps that could not keep ■ the water

from rising at first, might afterwards be able to prevent its rising higher, and the people might have remained on board in safety, without hazarding themselves in an open boat in the wide ocean. (Same plate, fig. 8.)

Besides the greater equality in the height of the two surfaces, there may sometimes be other things that retard the farther sinking of a leaky vessel. The rising water within may arrive at quantities of light wooden work, empty chests, and particularly empty water-casks, which if fixed so as not to float themselves may help to sustain her. Many bodies which compose a ship's cargo may be specifically lighter than water; all these when out of water are an additional weight to that of the ship, and she is in proportion pressed deeper into the water; but as soon as these bodies are immersed, they weigh no longer as the ship; but on the contrary, if fixed, they help to support her, in proportion as they are specifically lighter than the water. And it should be remembered, that the largest body of a ship may be so balanced in the water, that an ounce less or more of weight may leave her at the surface or sink her to the bottom. There are also certain heavy cargoes that, when the water gets to them, are continually dissolving, and thereby lightening the vessel, such as salt and sugar. And as to water-casks, mentioned above, since the quantity of them must be great in ships of war where the number of men consume a great deal of

water every day, if it had been made a constant rule ■ bung them up as fast ■ they ■ emptied, and to dispose the empty casks in proper situations, ■ am persuaded that many ships which have been sunk in engagements, or have gone down afterwards, might with the unhappy people have been saved ; ■ well ■ many of those which in the last ■■ foundered, and were never heard of. While ■ this topic of sinking, ■■ cannot help recollecting the well-known practice of the Chinese, to divide the hold of ■ great ship into ■ number of separate chambers by partitions tight caulked, (of which you gave a model in your boat upon the Seine) so that if a leak should spring in one of them the others are not affected by it ; and though that chamber should ■■ to a level with the sea, it would not be sufficient to sink the vessel. We have not imitated this practice. Some little disadvantage it might occasion in the stowage is perhaps ■■ reason, though that I think might be more than compensated by ■■ abatement in the insurance that would be reasonable, and by ■ higher price taken of passengers, who would rather prefer going in such ■ vessel. But ■■ seafaring people are brave, despise danger, and reject such precautions of safety, being cowards only in one sense, that of *fearing to be thought afraid*.

I promised to finish my letter with the last observation, but the garrulity of the old man has got hold of ■■ and ■■ I may never have another occa-

sion of writing on this subject, I think I may ■ well now, once for all, empty my nautical budget, and give you all the thoughts that have in my various long voyages occurred to me relating to navigation. I am sure that in you they will meet ■ candid judge, who will ■ my mistakes on account of my good intention.

There are six accidents that may occasion the loss of ships at sea. We have considered ■ of them, that of foundering by ■ leak. The other five are, 1. Oversetting by sudden flaws of wind, or by carrying sail beyond the bearing. 2. Fire by accident or carelessness. 3. A heavy stroke of lightning, making a breach in the ship, ■ firing the powder. 4. Meeting and shocking with other ships in the night. 5. Meeting in the night with islands of ice.

To that of oversetting, privateers in their first cruise have, ■ far ■ has fallen within my knowledge or information, been more subject than any other kind of vessels. The double desire of being able to overtake ■ weaker flying enemy, or to escape when pursued by a stronger, has induced the ■ to overmast their cruisers, and to spread too much canvas; and the great number of men, many of them not seamen, who being upon deck when ■ ship heels suddenly ■ huddled down to leeward, and increase by their weight the effect of the wind. This therefore should be more attended to ■ guarded against, especially ■ advan-

tage of lofty masts is problematical. For the upper sails have greater power to lay a vessel more on her side, which is not the most advantageous position for going swiftly through the water. And hence it is that vessels, which have lost their lofty masts, and been able to make little sail afterwards than permitted the ship to sail upon an even keel, have made much way, even under jury masts, to surprise the mariners themselves. But there is, besides, something in the modern form of our ships if calculated expressly to allow their oversetting more easily. The sides of a ship, instead of spreading out as they formerly did in the upper works, are of late years turned in, so as to make the body nearly round, and resembling a cask. I do not know what the advantages of this construction are, except that such ships are not easily boarded. To me it seems a contrivance to have less room in a ship nearly the same expense. For it is evident that the same timber and plank consumed in raising the sides from a to b, and from d to e, would have raised them from a to c, and from d to f, (same plate, fig. 9.) In this form all spaces between e, a, b, and c, d, f, would have been gained, the deck would have been larger, the men would have had more room to act, and not have stood so thick in the way of the enemy's shot; and the vessel, when she was laid down on her side, bearing she would be with, more effectual to support her, as being

from the centre. Whereas the present form, her ballast chief-part of her bearing, with which she would in the sea almost easily barrel. More ballast by this means be necessary, and that sinking a vessel deeper in the water occasions more resistance to her going through it. The Bermudian sloops keep with advantage to the old spreading form. The islanders in the great Pacific ocean, though they have no large ships, are the most expert boat-sailors in the world, navigating that safely with their proas, which they prevent oversetting by various means. Their sailing proas for this purpose have outriggers, generally to windward, above the water, which one or more are placed, to move occasionally further from or to the vessel as the wind freshens or slackens. But some have their outriggers to leeward, which, resting on the water, support the boat as to keep her upright when pressed down by the wind. These boats moved by oars, or rather paddles, are for long voyages, fixed two together by two bars of wood that keep them at some distance from each other; and render their oversetting next impossible. How far this may be practicable in larger vessels, we have not yet sufficient experience. I know of but one trial made in Europe, which was about a hundred years since, by the William Petty. He built a double vessel, in the form of a packet boat, to sail between England and Ireland.

Her model still exists in the museum of the Royal Society, where I have seen it. By the accounts we have of her, she answered well the purpose of her construction, making several voyages; and though wrecked at last by a storm, the misfortune did not appear owing to her particular construction, since many other vessels of the common form were wrecked at the same time. The advantage of such a vessel is, that she needs no ballast, therefore swims either lighter or will carry more goods; and that passengers are not so much incommoded by her rolling: to which may be added, that if she is to defend herself by her cannon, they will probably have more effect, being kept more generally in a horizontal position, than those in common vessels. I think, however, that it would be an improvement of that model, to make the sides which are opposed to each other perfectly parallel, though the other sides are formed as in common; thus, figure 10.

The building of a double ship would indeed be more expensive in proportion to her burthen; and that perhaps is sufficient to discourage the method.

The accident of fire is generally well guarded against by the prudent captain's strict orders against smoking between decks, or carrying a candle there out of a lantern. But there is one dangerous practice which frequent terrible accidents resulting therefrom have not yet been sufficient

abolish; that of carrying store-spirits to in casks. Two large ships, the *Scrapis* and the *Duke of Athol*, one East-Indiaman, the other a frigate, have been burnt within these two last years, and many lives miserably destroyed, by drawing spirits out of a cask near a candle. It is high time to make it a general rule, that no spirits shall be drawn by light of candle.

The misfortune by a stroke of lightning I have in my former writings endeavored to show a method of guarding against, by a chain and pointed rod, extending, when up, from above the top of the mast to the sea. These instruments made and sold at a reasonable price by Nairne & Co. in London, and there several instances of success attending the use of them. They are kept in a box, and may be up and fixed in about five minutes, on the apparent approach of a thunder gust.

Of the meeting and shocking with other ships in the night I have known two instances in voyages between London and America. In one both ships arrived though much damaged, each reporting their belief that the other must have gone to the bottom. In the other, only got to port; the other afterwards heard of. These instances happened many years ago, when the between Europe and America was a tenth part of what it is present; ships of course thinner scattered, and chance of meeting pro-

portionably less. It has long been the practice to keep a *look-out before* in the channel, but sea has been neglected. If it is not at present thought worth while to take that precaution, it will in become of more consequence ; since the number of ships at is continually augmenting. A drum frequently beat, or a bell rung in a dark night; might help to prevent such accidents.

Islands of ice frequently off the banks of Newfoundland, by ships going between North America and Europe. In the day time they are easily avoided, unless in a very thick fog. I remember two instances of ships running against them in the night. The first lost her bowsprit, but received little other damage. The other struck where the warmth of the sea had wasted the ice next to it, and a part hung over above. This perhaps saved her, for she was under great way ; but the upper part of the cliff taking her fore-topmast, broke the shock, though it carried away the mast. She disengaged herself with difficulty, and got safe into port ; but the accident shows the possibility of other ships being wrecked and sunk by striking those vast of ice, of which I have one that was judged to be seventy feet high above the water, consequently eight times as much under water ; it is another for keeping a good *look-out before*, though far from any coast that may threaten danger.

It is remarkable, that the people we consider as

savages have improved the art of sailing and rowing boats, in several points, beyond what we can pretend to. We have no sailing-boats equal to the flying proas of the South Seas; no rowing paddling-boat equal to that of the Greenlanders for swiftness and safety. The birch of the North-American Indians have also advantageous properties. They are so light that two men may carry one of them on land, which is capable of carrying a dozen upon the water; and, in heeling, they are not so subject to take in water as our boats, the sides of which are lowest in the middle, where it is most likely to enter, this being highest in that part, as in figure 11.

The Chinese are an enlightened people, the most anciently civilised of any existing; and their arts are ancient, a presumption in their favor; their method of rowing their boats differs from ours, the boat being worked either two a-stern as we scull, or on the sides, with the Venetian kind of motion, being hung parallel to the keel as a rail, and always acting in the water, not perpendicular to the side as ours are, not lifted out at every stroke, which is a loss of time, and the boat, in the interval, loses motion. They see our manner, and ours theirs, but neither are disposed to learn of or copy the other.

To the several means of moving boats mentioned above, may be added the singular one lately exhibited at Javelle, on the Seine below Paris, where a clumsy boat was moved across the river in three

minutes by rowing, not in the water, but in the air, that is, by whirling round a set of windmill fixed to a horizontal axis, parallel to the keel, and placed at the head of the boat. The axis bent into an elbow at the end, by the help of which it was turned by one man at a time. I saw the operation at a distance. The four windmills appeared to be about five feet long, and perhaps two and an half wide. The weather was calm. The labor appeared to be great for one man, but the two several times relieved each other. But the action upon the air by the oblique surfaces of the vanes must have been considerable, and the motion of the boat appeared tolerably quick going and returning; and she returned to the same place whence she first set out, notwithstanding the current. This machine is since applied to the moving of air-balloons: an instrument similar may be contrived to move a boat by turning under water.

Several mechanical projectors have at different times proposed to give motion to boats, and even to ships, by means of circular rowing, or paddles placed on the circumference of wheels, to be turned constantly on each side of the vessel; but this method, though frequently tried, has never been found so effectual as to encourage a continuance of the practice. I do not know that the reason has hitherto been given. Perhaps it may be this, that great part of the force employed contributes little to the motion. - For instance, (fig. 12.) of the

four paddles a, b, c, d, ■ under water, and turning to move ■ boat from X to Y, ■ has the most power, b nearly, though not quite ■ much, their motion being nearly horizontal; but the force employed in moving a, is consumed in pressing almost downright upon the water till it ■ to the place of b; and the force employed in moving d is consumed in lifting the water till d arrives at the surface; by which ■ much of the labor is lost. It is true, that by placing the wheels higher out of the water, this waste labor will be diminished in ■ calm, but where ■ sea runs, the wheels must unavoidably be often dipt deep in the waves, and the turning of them thereby rendered very laborious to little purpose.

Among the various ■ of giving motion to ■ boat, that of M. Bernoulli appears ■ of the most singular, which was to have fixed in the boat ■ tube in the form of an L, the upright part to have ■ funnel-kind of opening at top, convenient for filling the tube with water; which, descending and passing through the lower horizontal part, and issuing in the middle of the stern, but under the surface of the river, should push the boat forward. There ■ ■ doubt that the force of the descending water would have ■ considerable effect, greater in proportion to the height from which it descended; but then it is to be considered, ■ every bucket full pumped ■ dipped up into the boat, from its side or through its bottom, must

have its *vis incline* overcome so as to receive the motion of the boat, before it come to give motion by its descent; and that will be a deduction from the moving power. To remedy this, I would propose the addition of another such L pipe, and that they should stand back to back the boat thus, (Plate VII. fig. 13;) the forward one being worked as a pump, and sucking in the water at the head of the boat, would draw it forward while pushed in the same direction by the force at the stern. And after all, it should be calculated whether the labor of pumping would be less than that of rowing. A fire-engine might possibly in some cases be applied in this operation with advantage.

Perhaps this labor of raising water might be spared, and the whole force of a man applied to the moving of a boat, by the use of air instead of water. Suppose the boat constructed in this form, (Plate VII. fig. 14:) A a tube round or square, of two feet in diameter, in which a piston may move up and down: the piston to have valves in it, opening inwards, to admit air when the piston rises; and shutting, when it is forced down by means of the lever B turning on the centre C. The tube to have a valve D, to open when the piston is forced down, and let the air pass out at E, striking forcibly against the water abaft, and push the boat forward. If there is added an air-vessel F, properly valved and placed, the

force would continue to act while a fresh stroke is taken with the lever. The boatman might stand with his back to the stern, and putting his hands behind him, work the motion by taking hold of the cross bar at B, while another should steer ; if he had two such pumps, one on each side of the stern, with a lever for each hand, he might steer himself by working occasionally more or harder with either hand, as watermen now do with a pair of sculls. There is a position in which the body of a man can exert more strength than in pulling right upwards. To obtain more swiftness, greasing the bottom of a vessel is sometimes used, and with good effect. I do not know that any writer has hitherto attempted to explain this. At first sight one would imagine, that though the friction of a hard body, sliding on another hard body, and the resistance occasioned by that friction, might be diminished by putting grease between them ; yet that a body sliding on a fluid, such as water, should have no need of, nor receive any advantage from such greasing. But the fact is not disputed. And the reason perhaps may be this—The particles of water have a mutual attraction, called the attraction of adhesion. Water also adheres to wood, and to many other substances, but not to grease : on the contrary, they have a mutual repulsion ; so that it is a question, whether, when oil is poured on water, they ever actually touch each other ; for a drop

of oil upon water, instead of sticking to the spot where it falls, it would if it fell on a looking-glass, spreads instantly to an immense distance in a film extremely thin, which it could not easily do if it touched and rubbed, or adhered even in a small degree, to the surface of the water. Now the adhesive force of water to itself, and to other substances, may be estimated from the weight of it necessary to separate a drop which adheres, while growing, till it has weight enough to force the separation and break the drop off. Let us suppose the drop to be the size of a pea, then there will be as many of these adhesions as there are drops of that size touching the bottom of a vessel, and these must be broken by the moving power, every step of her motion that amounts to a drop's breadth : and there being no such adhesions to break between the water and a greased bottom, may occasion the difference.

So much respecting the motion of vessels. But we have sometimes occasion to stop their motion ; and if a bottom is shallow enough we can cast anchor : where there are soundings, we have yet no way to prevent driving in a storm, but by lying-to, which still permits driving at the rate of about two miles an hour ; that, in a storm continuing fifty hours, which is not an unusual case, the ship may drive one hundred miles out of her course ; and should she in that distance meet with lee-shore, she may be lost.

To prevent this driving to leeward in deep water, a swimming anchor is wanting, which ought to have these properties :

1. It should have a surface as large as, being the end of a hauser in the water, and placed perpendicularly, should hold much of it, to bring the ship's head to the wind, in which situation the wind has least power to drive her.

2. It should be able by its resistance to prevent the ship's receiving way.

3. It should be capable of being situated below the heave of the sea, but not below the undertow.

4. It should not take up much room in the ship.

5. It should be easily thrown out, and put into its proper situation.

6. It should be easy to take in again, and stow away.

An ingenious old mariner, whom I formerly knew, proposed, a swimming anchor for a large ship, to have a stem of wood, twenty-five feet long and four inches square, with four boards of 18, 16, 14, and 12 feet long, and one foot wide, the boards to have their substance thickened several inches in the middle by additional wood, and to have each a four inch square hole through its middle, to permit its being slipped on occasionally upon the stem, and at right angles with it ; where all being placed and fixed at four feet distance from each other, it would have the appearance of the old mathematical instrument called a forestaff.

This thrown into the sea, and held by a hauser veered out at _____ length, he conceived would bring a vessel up, and prevent her driving, and when taken in, might be stowed away by separating the boards from the stem. Figure 15. Probably such a swimming anchor would have some good effect; but it is subject to this objection, _____ lying on the surface of the sea, it is liable to be hove forward by every wave, and thereby give _____ much leave for the ship to drive.

Two machines for this purpose have occurred to me, which, though not so simple as the above, I imagine would be _____ effectual, and more easily manageable. I will endeavor to describe them, that they may be submitted to your judgment, whether either would be serviceable; and if they would, to which we should give the preference.

The first is to be formed, and to be used in the water, _____ almost the same principles with those of a paper kite used in the air. Only _____ the paper kite rises in the air, this is to descend in the water. Its dimensions will be different for ships of different size.

To make _____ of suppose fifteen feet high; take a small spar of that length for the back-bone, A B, Plate VII. figure 16; _____ smaller of half that length, C D, for the cross piece. Let these be united by a bolt _____ E, yet so _____ by turning on the bolt they may be laid parallel _____ each other. Then

make ■ sail of strong canvas, in the shape of figure 17. To form this, without waste of sail-cloth, ■■ together pieces of the proper length, and for half the breadth, as in figure 18, then cut the whole in the diagonal lines, a, b, c, and turn the piece F ■■ to place its broad part opposite to that of the piece G, and the piece H in like ■■■■ opposite to I, which, when all sewed together, will appear ■ in fig. 17. This sail is to be extended ■ the ■■ of fig. 16, the top and bottom points well secured to the ends of the long spar; the two side points d, e, fastened to the ends of two cords, which coming from the angle of the loop (which must be similar to the loop of a kite) pass through two rings at the ends of the short spar, so as that ■ pulling upon the loop the sail will be drawn to its extent. The whole may, when on board, be furled up, ■ in figure 19, having ■ rope from its broad end, to which is tied ■ bag of ballast for keeping that end downwards when in the water, and at the other end another rope, with ■ empty keg at its end, to float on the surface; this rope long enough to permit the kites' descending into the undertow, ■ if you please, lower into still water. ■ should be held by a hauser. To get it home easily, ■ small loose rope may be veered out with it, fixed to the keg. Hauling ■ that rope will bring the kite home with small force, ■ it will ■■ end-ways.

It seems probable that such a kite at the end of

■ long hauser would keep ■ ship with her head to ■ wind, and, resisting every tug, would prevent her driving ■ fast ■ when her side is exposed to it, and nothing ■ hold her back. ■ only half the driving is prevented, ■ ■ that she ■ but fifty miles instead of the hundred during ■ storm, it may be ■ advantage, both in holding ■ much distance ■ ■ saved, and in keeping from ■ lee-shore. If single canvas should not be found strong enough to bear the tug without splitting, it may be doubled, or strengthened by a netting behind it, represented by figure 20.

The other machine, for the ■ purpose, is to be made ■ in the form of ■ umbrella, ■ presented, figure 21. The stem of the umbrella, a square spar of proper length, with four moveable arms, of which two ■ represented C, C, figure 22. These ■ to be fixed in four joint cleats, ■ D, D, &c. one on each side of the spar, but ■ ■ that the four ■ may open by turning ■ a pin in the joint. When open they form ■ cross, ■ which a four-square ■ sail is to be extended, its corners fastened to the ends of the four arms. Those ends are also to be stayed by ropes fastened to ■ stem or spar, ■ ■ to keep them short of being ■ right angles with it: and to the end of one of the arms should be hung the small bag of ballast, and to the end of the opposite arm ■ empty keg. This, ■ being thrown into the ■ immediately open; and when ■ had per-

formed its function, and the storm over, a small rope from its other end being pulled on, would turn it, close it, and draw it easily home to the ship. This machine seems more simple in its operation, and more easily manageable than the first, and perhaps may be as effectual.*

Vessels sometimes retarded, and sometimes forwarded in their voyages, by currents at sea, which are often not perceived. About the year 1769, or 70, there was an application made by the board of customs at Boston, to the lords of the treasury in London, complaining that the packets between Falmouth and New York were generally a fortnight longer in their passages than merchant-ships from London to Rhode Island, and proposing that for the future they should be ordered to Rhode Island, instead of New York. Being then concerned in the management of the American post-office, I happened to be consulted on the occasion; and it appearing strange to me that there should be such a difference between two places, scarce a day's run asunder, especially when the merchant-ships are generally deeper laden, and more weakly manned than the packets, and had from London the whole length of the river and channel to run before they left the land

* Captain Truxton, on board whose ship this was written, executed this proposed machine: he gave six iron umbrellas, and joined them to the stem by iron hinges: the canvas was double. He took it with him in 1786.

of England, while the packets had only to go from Falmouth, I could not but think the fact misunderstood or misrepresented. There happened then in London a Nantucket sea-captain of my acquaintance, to whom I communicated the affair. He told me he believed the fact might be true; but the difference was owing to this, that the Rhode Island captains were acquainted with the gulph stream, which those of the English packets were not. We are well acquainted with that stream, said he, because in our pursuit of whales, which keep near the sides of it, but are not to be met with in it, we run down along the sides, and frequently cross it to change side; and in crossing it have sometimes met and spoken with those packets, who were in the middle of it, and stemming it. We have informed them that they were stemming a current that was running against them at the rate of three miles an hour, and advised them to avoid it and get out of it; but they were not wise and he counselled by simple American fishermen. When the winds are but light, he added; they are carried back by the current more than they are forwarded by the wind: and if the wind is good, the subtraction of 70 miles a-day from their course is of great importance. I then observed that it was a pity that notice was taken of the current upon the charts, and requested him to mark it out for me, which he readily complied with, adding directions for avoid-

ing ■ in sailing from Europe to North America. I procured it to be engraved by order from the general post-office, on the old chart of the Atlantic, at Mount and Page's, Tower-hill; and copies were sent down to Falmouth for the captains of the packets, who however slighted it; but it ■ since printed in France, of which edition I hereto ■ a copy.¹

This stream is probably generated by the great accumulation of water on the eastern coast of America, between the tropics, by the trade-winds which constantly blow there. ■ is known that a large piece of water ■ miles broad, and generally only three feet deep, has by ■ strong wind had its water driven to one side, and sustained so ■ to become six feet deep, while the windward side ■ laid dry. This may give some idea of the quantity heaped up on the American coast, and the ■ of its running down in a strong current through the islands into the bay of Mexico, and thence issuing through the Gulph of Florida, and proceeding along the coast to the banks of Newfoundland, where it turns off towards and runs down through the Western Islands. Having since crossed this stream several times, in passing between America and Europe, ■ have been ■

¹ The map is constructed ■ as to embrace ■ view, ■ theory of the Gulph Stream and the theory of ■ migration of fish; ■ attention ■ been paid also to Volney's suggestions on ■ subject of the Gulph Stream. See the plate.

tive to sundry circumstances relating to it, by which to know when one is in it; and besides the gulph weed by which it is interspersed, I find that it is always **whiter** than the **sea** on either side of it, and that it does not sparkle in the night. I annex hereto the observations made with the thermometer in two voyages,¹ and possibly may add a third. It will appear from them, that the thermometer may be **a** useful instrument to a navigator, since currents coming from the northward into southern seas, will probably be found colder than the water of those seas, **and** the currents from southern **seas** into northern **seas** found warmer. And it is not to be wondered that **a** vast a body of deep warm water, several leagues wide, coming from between the tropics, and issuing out of the gulph into the northern seas, should retain its warmth longer than the twenty or thirty days **required** to its passing the banks of Newfoundland. The quantity is too great, and it is too deep to be suddenly cooled by passing under a cooler air. The air immediately over it, however, may receive **a** much warmth from it **and** to be rarefied and rise, being rendered lighter than the air on each side of the stream; hence those airs must flow in **to** supply the place of the rising **warmer** air, and, meeting each other, form those tornadoes and water-spouts frequently met with, and **often** near and

¹ See page 479.

the stream ; and as the vapor from a cup of tea in a room, and the breath of an animal in the same room, are hardly visible, but become sensible immediately when out in the cold air, the vapor from the gulph stream, in these latitudes, is scarcely visible ; but when it enters into the cool air from Newfoundland, it is condensed into the fogs, for which those parts are so remarkable.

The power of wind to raise water above its common level in the sea, is known to us in America, by the high tides occasioned in all our sea-ports when a strong north-easter blows against the gulph stream.

The conclusion from these remarks is, that a vessel from Europe to North America may shorten her passage by avoiding to stem the stream, in which the thermometer will be very useful ; and a vessel from America to Europe may do the same by the means of keeping in it. It may have often happened accidentally, that voyages have been shortened by these circumstances. It is well to have the command of them.

But may there not be another cause, independent of winds and currents, why passages are generally shorter from America to Europe than from Europe to America ? This question I formerly considered in the following short paper.

board the *Pennsylvania Packet*, Captain Osborne.

At sea, April 5, 1775.

"Suppose a ship to make a voyage eastward from a place in lat. 40° north, to a place in lat. 50° north, distance in longitude 75 degrees.

"In sailing from 40° to 50° , she goes from a place where a degree of longitude is about eight miles greater than in the place she is going to. A degree is equal to four minutes of time; consequently the ship in the harbor she leaves, partaking of the diurnal motion of the earth, moves two miles in a minute faster, than when in the port she is going to; which is 120 miles in an hour.

"This motion in a ship and cargo is of great force; and if she could be lifted up suddenly from the harbor in which she lay quiet, and set down instantly in the latitude of the port she was bound to, though in a calm, that force contained in her would make her run a great way at a prodigious rate. This force must be lost gradually in her voyage, by gradual impulse against the water, and probably thence shorten the voyage. Query: In returning does the contrary happen, and is her voyage thereby retarded and lengthened?"

Would it not be a more proper method of plank-ing ships, if, instead of thick single planks laid

* Since this paper was read at the Society in Philadelphia, an ingenious member, Mr. Patterson, convinced the writer that the returning voyage would not, from this cause, be retarded.

horizontally, ■ were to use planks of half the thickness, and lay them double and across each other as in Plate VII. figure 23? To me it ■ that the difference of expense would not be considerable, and that the ship would be both tighter and stronger.

The securing of the ship is not the only ■ sary thing; securing the health of the sailors, ■ brave and valuable order of men, is likewise of great importance. With this view, the methods so successfully practised by Captain Cook in his long voyages, cannot be too closely studied or carefully imitated. A full account of those methods is found in Sir John Pringle's speech, when the medal of the Royal Society was given to that illustrious navigator. I am glad to ■ in his last voyage that he found the ■ effectual which I had proposed for preserving flour, bread, &c. from moisture and damage. They ■ found dry and good after being at ■ four years. The method is described in my philosophical works, page 452, ■ edition.¹

¹ TO MR. P. FRANKLIN, NEWPORT, RHODE ISLAND.

*Best Method of securing a Powder Magazine from Lightning—
Preserving Powder, Flour, &c.*

— You may acquaint the gentleman that desired you ■ inquire my opinion of the best method of securing a powder ■ gasine from lightning, that I think they cannot do better than ■ a ■ ■ from it, which may reach fifteen or twenty feet above the top of it, with a thick iron rod, in ■ piece, ■ it, pointed at the highest end, ■ reaching ■ through ■

In the same, page 469, 470, is proposed a means

earth till it comes to water. Iron is a cheap metal; but it were dearer, as it is a public thing, the expense insignificant; therefore I would have the rod at least an inch thick, to allow for gradually wasting by rust; it will last as long as the mast, and may be renewed with it. The sharp point five or six inches should be gilt.

But there is another circumstance of importance to the strength, goodness, and usefulness of the powder, which does not seem to have been enough attended to. I mean, the keeping it perfectly dry. For want of a method of doing this, much is spoiled in damp magazines, and much so damaged as to become of little value.—If, instead of barrels, it were kept in rows of bottles well corked, or in large tin canisters, with small pieces of paper shutting close by means of oiled paper between, or covering the joining on the canister; or if in barrels, then the barrels lined with thin sheet lead; or moisture by either of these methods could possibly enter the powder, since glass and metals are both impervious to water.

By the latter of these means you see that it is brought dry and crisp from China to Europe, and thence to America, though it comes all the way by sea, in the damp hold of a ship. And by the same method, grain, meal, &c. if well dried before it is put up, may be kept for ages sound and good.

There is another thing very proper to line the barrels with; it is what they call tin-foil, or leaf-tin, being tin milled between rollers so that it is as thin as paper, and very pliant, so that the time that the texture is extremely close. It may be applied to wood with common paste, made with boiling water thickened with flour; and, so laid on, will be very close and well: I prefer a sticky varnish for that purpose, made of linseed oil much boiled. The barrel might be lined separately, or the wrapping might be made to the edges. The barrel, while the lining is laid on, should be kept from the hoops

of allaying thirst in case of want of fresh water.¹

slack, — that the staves standing — a little distance from each other, may admit the head into its groove. The tin-foil should be plyed into the groove. Then, — being put in, — end hooped tight, the barrel would be — to receive the powder, and when the other head is put in and the hoops drove up, — powder would be safe from moisture — — barrel — kept under water. This tin-foil is but about eighteen pence sterling — pound, and is so extremely thin, that I imagine — pound of it would line three or four powder-barrels.

I am, &c.

B. FRANKLIN.

¹ *Salt Water rendered fresh by Distillation.—Method of relieving Thirst by Sea Water.*

TO MISS STEVENSON.

Crown-street, August 10, 1761.

In yours of May 19, which I have before me, you speak of the ease with which salt water may be made fresh by distillation, supposing it to be, — I — said, that in evaporation the air would take up water, but not the salt that — mixed with it. It is true that distilled sea water will not be salt; but there — other disagreeable qualities that rise with the water in — tion; which indeed several, besides Dr. Hales, have endeavored by some — to prevent; but as yet their methods have not been brought much into —

I have — singular opinion on — subject, which I will venture — communicate to you, though I doubt you will rank — my whims. It is certain that — skin has imbibing as well as discharging pores; witness the effects of — blistering plaister, &c. I have read that — man, — by — physician to — by way of experiment in the open air naked during — moist night, weighed — three pounds heavier in the morning. I — often observed myself, that however thirsty I may have been — going into the water to swim, I am — long so — the — These imbibing pores, however, are very fine, perhaps fine enough




This has since been practised in two instances with [redacted]. Happy if their hunger, when the other provisions are consumed, could be relieved as commodiously; and perhaps in time this may be found not impossible. An addition might be made to their present vegetable provision, by drying various roots in slices by the [redacted] of an [redacted]. The sweet potatoe of America and Spain is excellent for this purpose. Other potatoes, with carrots, parsnips, and turnips, might be prepared and preserved in the [redacted] [redacted].


in filtering, to separate salt from water; for though I have soaked (by swimming, when a boy) several hours in the day for several days successively, in salt water, I [redacted] found my blood and juices salted by that means, so as to make me thirsty or feel a salt [redacted] in my mouth: and [redacted] is remarkable, that the flesh of [redacted] fish, though bred in salt water, is [redacted] salt. Hence I imagine, that if people at sea, distressed by thirst, when their fresh water is unfortunately spent, would make bathing tubs of their empty [redacted] casks, and, filling them with [redacted] water, sit in them [redacted] hour [redacted] two each day, they might be greatly relieved. Perhaps keeping their clothes constantly [redacted] might have an almost equal effect; and this without danger of catching cold. [redacted] [redacted] [redacted] catch cold by wet clothes at sea. Damp, but [redacted] wet linen, may possibly give colds; but no one catches cold by bathing, [redacted] no, clothes [redacted] be wetter than water itself. Why damp clothes should then occasion colds, is a curious question, the discussion of which [redacted] [redacted] for a future letter, [redacted] [redacted] future conversation.










Adieu, my little philosopher. Present my respectful compliments [redacted] [redacted] the good ladies your aunts, and to Miss Pitt; [redacted] [redacted] [redacted] your [redacted] friend, [redacted] humble servant,

[redacted] FRANKLIN.

With regard to make-shifts in ■■■■ of necessity, seamen are generally very ingenious themselves. They will excuse however the mention of two or three. ■■ they happen in any circumstance, such ■■ after ship-wreck, taking to their boat, ■■ the like, to want ■■ compass, a fine sewing-needle laid ■■ clear water in ■■ cup will generally point to the north, most of them being a little magnetical, ■■ may be made ■■ by being strongly rubbed ■■ hammered, lying in ■■ north and south direction. If their needle is too heavy to float by itself, it may be supported by little pieces of cork ■■ wood. A ■■ who can swim, may be aided in ■■ long traverse by his handkerchief formed into a kite, by two ■■■■ sticks extending to the four corners; which, being raised in the air when the wind is fair and fresh, will tow him along, while lying on his back. Where force is wanted to move ■■ heavy body, and there are but few hands and no machines, a long and strong rope may make ■■ powerful instrument. Suppose a boat is to be drawn up on ■■ beach, that she may be out of the surf; ■■ stake drove into the beach where you would have the boat drawn, and another to fasten the end of the rope to, which ■■■■ from the boat, and then applying what force you have to pull upon ■■ middle of the rope at right angles with it, the power will be augmented in proportion to the length of rope between the posts. The rope being fastened ■■ the stake A, and drawn ■■■■ in the direction

CD, will slide  stake B;  when the rope is bent to the angle A D B, represented by the pricked line in Plate VII. figure 24, the boat  B.

Some sailors may think the writer has given himself unnecessary trouble in pretending to advise them; for they have a little repugnance to the advice of landmen, whom they esteem ignorant and incapable of giving any worth notice; though it is certain that most of their instruments were the invention of landmen. At least the first vessel  made to go on the water was certainly such. I will therefore add only a few words more, and they shall be addressed to passengers.

When you intend a long voyage, you may do well to keep your intention as much  possible  secret, or at least the time of your departure; otherwise you will be continually interrupted in your preparations by the visits of friends and acquaintance, who will not only rob you of the time you want, but put things out of your mind,  that when you come to sea, you have the mortification to recollect points of business that ought to have been done, accounts you intended to settle, and conveniencies you had proposed to bring with you, &c., all which have been omitted through the  of  officious friendly visits. Would it not be well, if this custom could be changed; if the voyage  having without interruption made all  preparations, should use some of  time  has

left, in going himself to take leave of his friends ■■■ their own houses, and ■■■ them ■■■ to congratulate him on his happy return.

It is not always in your power to make ■ choice in your captain, though much of your comfort in the passage may depend ■■ his personal character, as you must for so long a time be confined to his company, and under his direction; if he is ■ ■■■ sible, sociable, good-natured, obliging man, you will be ■ much the happier. Such there are; but if he happens to be otherwise, and is only skilful, careful, watchful, and active in the conduct of his ship, excuse the rest, for these are the essentials.

Whatever right you have by agreement in the mass of stores laid in by him for the passengers, ■ ■ good to have ■■■ particular things in your ■■■ possession, ■ ■ to be always at your own ■■■ mand.

1. Good water, that of the ship being often bad. You ■■■ be ■■■ of having it good only by bottling it from a clear spring or well and in clean bottles.
 2. Good tea. 3. Coffee ground. 4. Chocolate.
 5. Wine of the sort you particularly like, and cyder.
 6. Raisins. 7. Almonds. 8. Sugar. 9. Capillaire.
 10. Lemons. 11. Jamaica spirits. 12. Eggs greased.
 13. Diet bread. 14. Portable soup. 15. Rusks. As ■ fowls, it is not worth while to have any called yours, unless you could have the feeding and managing of them, according to your ■■■ judgment under your ■■■ eye. As they ■■ generally ■■■

at present in ships, they are for the most part sick, and their flesh tough and hard ■ whit-leather. All ■ have an opinion, broached I suppose ■ prudently, for saving of water when short, that fowls do not know when they have drunk enough, and will kill themselves if you give them too much; ■ they ■ served with a little only once in two days. This is poured into troughs that lie sloping, and therefore immediately ■ down to the lower end. There the fowls ride upon one another's backs to get ■ it, and ■ are not happy enough to reach and once dip their bills in it. Thus tantalised and tormented with thirst, they cannot digest their dry food; they fret, pine, sicken, and die. Some are found dead and thrown overboard every morning, and those killed for the table ■ not eatable. Their troughs should be in little divisions, like cups, to hold the water separately, figure 25. But this is ■ done. The sheep and hogs ■ therefore your best dependence for fresh meat at sea, the mutton being generally tolerable, and the pork excellent.

It is possible your captain may have provided ■ well in the general stores, ■ to render some of the particulars above recommended of little or ■ use ■ you. But there are frequently in the ship poorer passengers, who are taken at a lower price, lodge in the steerage, and have no claim to any of ■ cabin provisions, or to any but those kinds that are allowed the sailors. These people are

sometimes dejected, sometimes sick; there may be women and children among them. In a situation where there is no going to market to purchase such necessaries, ■ few of your superfluities distributed occasionally, may be of great service, restore health, save life, make the miserable happy, and thereby afford you infinite pleasure.

The worst thing in ordinary merchant ships is the cookery. They have ■■ professed cook, and the worst hand ■ a seaman is appointed to that office, in which he is not only very ignorant but very dirty. The sailors have therefore ■ saying, that *God sends meat and the devil cooks*. Passengers more piously disposed, and willing to believe heaven orders all things for the best, may suppose, that, knowing the sea-air and constant exercise by the motion of the vessel would give extraordinary appetites, bad cooks were kindly sent to prevent ■■ eating too much; ■ that, foreseeing that ■■ should have bad cooks, good appetites were furnished to prevent our starving. If you cannot trust to these circumstances, ■ spirit lamp, with a blaze-pan, may enable you to cook ■■ little things for yourself; such ■ ■ hash, ■ soup, &c. And it might be well also to have among your stores ■■ potted meats, which, if well put up, will keep long good. A small tin oven, to place with the open side before the fire, may be another good utensil, in which your own servant may roast for you ■ bit of pork ■■■■■. You will sometimes

be induced to eat of the ship's salt beef, as it is often good. You will find cyder the best quencher of that thirst which salt meat on fish occasions. The ship biscuit is too hard for many sets of teeth. It may be softened by toasting. But rusk is better: for being made of good fermented bread, sliced and baked a second time, the pieces imbibe the water easily, soften immediately, digest more kindly, and are therefore more wholesome than the unfermented biscuit. By the way, rusk is the true original biscuit, as prepared to keep for sea, biscuit in French signifying twice baked. If your dry peas boil hard, a two-pound iron shot put with them into the pot, will, by the motion of the ship, grind them as fine as mustard.

The accidents I have seen at sea with large dishes of soup upon a table, from the motion of the ship, have made me wish that our potters or pewterers would make soup dishes in divisions, like a set of small bowls united together, each containing about sufficient for one person, in such form as fig. 26; for then, when the ship should make a sudden heel, the soup would not in a body flow over one side, and fall into people's laps and scald them, as sometimes the case, but would be retained in the separate divisions, as in figure 27.

After these trifles, permit the addition of a few general reflections. Navigation, when employed in supplying necessary provision to a country in want, and thereby preventing famines, which were

more frequent and destructive before the invention of that art, is undoubtedly a blessing to mankind. When employed merely in transporting superfluities, it is a question whether the advantage of the employment it affords is equal to the mischief of hazarding many lives on the ocean. But when employed in pillaging merchants and transporting slaves, it is clearly the means of augmenting the of human misery. It is amazing to think of the ships and lives risked in fetching tea from China, coffee from Arabia, sugar and tobacco from America, all which ancestors did well without. Sugar employs near thousand ships, tobacco almost as many. For the utility of tobacco there is little to be said; and for that of sugar, how much commendable would it be, if we could give up the few minutes' gratification afforded once twice a-day by the taste of sugar in our tea, rather than encourage the cruelties exercised in producing it! An eminent French moralist says, that when he considers the wars excite in Africa to obtain slaves, the numbers necessarily slain in those wars, the many prisoners who perish at sea by sickness, bad provisions, foul air, &c. &c. in the transportation, and how many afterwards die from the hardships of slavery, he cannot look a piece of sugar without conceiving it stained with spots of human blood! added the consideration of the wars we make to take and retake the sugar islands from another, and

■■■ and armies that perish in those expeditions, he might have seen ■■ sugar not merely spotted, ■■ thoroughly dyed scarlet in grain. It is these ■■■ that make the maritime powers of Europe, the inhabitants of London and Paris, pay dearer for sugar than those of Vienna, a thousand miles from the sea; because their sugar costs not only the price they pay for it by the pound, but all they pay in taxes to maintain the fleets and armies that fight for it.¹

With great esteem, I am, Sir, your most obedient humble servant, B. FRANKLIN.

ON THE GULPH STREAM.

Remarks on the Navigation from Newfoundland to New York, in order to avoid the Gulph Stream on the one hand, and on the other the Shoals that lie to the southward of Nantucket and of St. George's Banks. [See Plate.]

AFTER you have passed the banks of Newfoundland in about the 44th degree of latitude, you will meet with nothing till you draw near the Cape of Sables, which is commonly pass in the Gulf Stream of this isle, the current is found to run

¹ See "*A Thought concerning the Sugar Islands*," Part II. 107, of this volume.

tend itself ■ far north as $41^{\circ} 20'$ or $30'$, then it turns towards the E. S. E. ■ S. E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E.

Having passed the Isle of Sables, shape your ■■■■ for the St. George's Banks, so ■ to pass them in about latitude 40° , because the current southward of those banks reaches ■ far north as 39° . The shoals of those banks lie in $41^{\circ} 35'$.

After having passed St. George's Banks, you must, to clear Nantucket, form your course so ■ ■ pass between the latitudes $38^{\circ} 30'$ and $40^{\circ} 45'$.

The most southern part of the shoals of Nantucket lie in about $40^{\circ} 45'$. The northern part of the current, directly to the south of Nantucket, is felt in about latitude $38^{\circ} 30'$.

By observing these directions and keeping between the stream and the shoals, the passage from the banks of Newfoundland to New York, Delaware, or Virginia, may be considerably shortened ; for, so you will have the advantage of the eddy current, which ■■■■ contrary to the Gulph Stream. Whereas if to avoid the shoals you keep too far to the southward, and get into that stream, you will be retarded by it at the rate of ■■ ■ 70 miles a-day.

The Nantucket whale-men being extremely well acquainted with the Gulph Stream, its course, strength, and extent, by their constant practice of whaling on the edges of it, from their island quite down to the Bahamas, this draft of that ■■■■ was obtained from one of them, captain Folger,

and caused ■ be engraved ■ the old chart in London, for the benefit of navigators, by

B. FRANKLIN.

Note. The Nantucket captains who ■ acquainted with this stream, make their voyages from England to Boston in as short ■ time generally ■ others take in going from Boston to England, viz. from twenty to thirty days.

A stranger may know when he is in the Gulph Stream, by the warmth of the water, which is much greater than that of the water on each side of it. If then he is bound to the westward, he should ■ the stream to get out of it ■ ■ possible.

B. FRANKLIN.

OBSERVATIONS of the [redacted] **of the SEA-WATER, &c. by**
Fahrenheit's Thermometer, crossing the GULPH STREAM;
 [redacted] *other Remarks made on board the Pennsylvania Packet,*
Captain Osborne, bound from London to Philadelphia, in
April and May, 1775.

[illegible]

2

Date.	Hour A. M.	Hour P. M.	Temp. of Air.	Temp. of Water.	Wind.	Course.	Distance.	Lat. N.	Long. W.	Remarks.
Oct. 31	10			70	S E	E S	135	53 12	70 30	Left the capes Thurs night, Oct. 29, 1776.
Nov. 1				71						
		4	71	78	W S W	E N	109	No ob.	68 12	
				75	N					
	1			78			141	ditto.	65 23	
			67	76	N W	E S E				Some sparks in the m
	8		76	76		E S	160	57 0	63 7	these two m nights.
	12		70	76						
	4		68	76		N E	194		58 8	Ditto.
		1		76						
		4		76						
				78						
				76		N E				Ditto.
			68	76						
			70	75			163	35 21	55 3	Ditto.
		8		75						
	6			76	E N	S S E				
	12			77			75	35 33	53 52	
				78	S E	N S W				
				77				36 6	52 46	
				77						
	8		75	77	S E	N S E	175	38 2	50 1	
				77						
				77						
	9			77						
			75	70	S W	N S E	175	39 39	46 55	

OF A VOYAGE, &c.

Therm. A. M. Therm. P. M.		Winds.		Course.		Variation of the Needle.		Noon.	
Lat. N.	Long. W.	Air.	Water.	Air.	Water.	A.	W.	A.	W.
Aug. 37	38	38	6	omit	omit	West	NW	75	75
36	15	38	38	76	76	WNW	SW	77	77
35	40	38	44	77	76	WbS	SSW	80	77
33	35	35	40	58	78	omit	WbS	omit	74
34	35	31	31	73	75	WNW	SWbW	41	76
35	40	33	33	76	79	WbN	WNWbN	60	76
36	35	30	41	44	79	SWbW	SWbS	14	76
37	35	14	43	23	77	West	WSWbS	38	78
38	34	33	44	0	76	NNE	SWbS	60	78
39	34	13	45	58	78	omit	WbS	79	79
30	34	5	31	78	78	omit	WbS	139	80
31	34	20	31	4	79	omit	WbS	125	80
Sept. 1	34	30	59	47	81	SSW	WbN	114	81
2	34	55	55	12	83	SWbS	WbN	82	81
3	35	30	57	24	83	SWbS	WbN	96	81
4	35	50	59	1	83	SWbS	WbN	86	81
5	35	55	61	0	80	SWbS	WbN	74	81
6	36	30	59	30	79	WNW	SSW	108	81
7	34	50	63	10	80	WNW	WbS	126	81
8	34	45	64	40	75	ENE	WNW	108	81
9	35	45	66	43	77	ENE	NW	126	81
10	37	20	68	40	77	ENE	NW	126	81

N.B. Longitude is reckoned from London, and the Thermometer according to Fahrenheit.

OBSERVATIONS.

July 31. At ■■■ P. M. the Start bore WNW. distant six leagues.

August 1. The water appears luminous in the ship's wake.

— 2. The temperature of the water is taken ■■ eight in the morning and at eight in the evening.

— 6. The water appears less luminous.

— 7. Formegas SW. dist. $32\frac{1}{2}$ deg. St. Mary's $SW\frac{1}{2}S$. ■■ leagues.

— 8. From this date the temperature of the water is taken at eight in the morning and at six in the evening.

— 10. Moonlight, which prevents the luminous appearance of the water.

— 11. A strong southerly current.

— 12. Ditto. From this date the temperature of the air and water was taken ■■ noon, as well as morning and evening.

— 16. Northerly current.

— 19. First ■■■ gulph weed.

— 21. Southerly current.

— 22. Again ■■■ gulph weed.

— 24. The water appeared luminous in a small degree before the ■■■ rose.

— 25. No moon, yet very light in the water.

— 30. Much gulph weed to-day.

— 31. Ditto.

Sept. 1. Ditto.

Sept. 2. A little more light in the water.

— 4. No gulph weed to-day. More light in the water.

— 5. Some gulph weed again.

— 6. Little light in the water. A very small thunder-gust in the night.

— 7. Little gulph weed.

— 8. More light in the water. Little gulph weed.

— 9. Little gulph weed. Little light in the water last evening.

— 10. Saw some beds of rock-weed ; and were surprised to observe the water six degrees colder by the thermometer than the preceding noon.

This day (10th) the thermometer still kept descending, and at five in the morning of the 11th, it was in water as low as 70, when we struck soundings. The evening the pilot came on board, and we found our ship about five degrees of longitude a-head of the reckoning, which our captain accounted for by supposing our course to have been the edge of the gulph stream, and thus an eddy-current always in our favor. By the distance we ran from Sept. 9, in the evening, till we struck soundings, we must have then been at the western edge of the gulph stream, and the change in the temperature of the water probably owing to our suddenly passing from that current into the waters of another climate.

On the 14th of August the following experiment was made. The weather being perfectly calm, an empty bottle, corked very tight, was sent down 20 fathoms, and it was drawn up still empty. It was then sent down again 35 fathoms, when, the weight of the water having forced in the cork, it was drawn up full; the water it contained was immediately tried by the thermometer, and found to be 70, which was six degrees colder than at the surface: the lead and bottle were visible, but not very distinctly so, at the depth of 12 fathoms; but when only 7 fathoms deep, they were perfectly visible from the ship. This experiment was thus repeated Sept. 11, when we were in soundings of 18 fathoms. A keg was previously prepared with a valve at each end, one opening inward, the other outward; this was sent to the bottom, in expectation that by the valves being both open when going down, and both shut when coming up, it would keep within it the water received at bottom. The upper valve performed its office well, but the under one did not shut quite close, so that much of the water was lost in hauling it up the ship's side. As the water in the keg's passage upwards could not enter at the top, it was concluded that what water remained in it was of that from the ground; and on trying this by the thermometer, it was found to be 58, which was 12 degrees colder than the surface.

This last journal was obligingly kept for me by

Mr. J. Williams, my fellow-passenger in the London Packet, who made ■ the experiments with great exactness.

The chart here given has been constructed with ■ view to give ■ more comprehensive idea of the course of the Gulph Stream. Volney very plausibly suggests, that the earth deposited by the Gulph Stream S.E. of Newfoundland, has formed the great banks; and that the accumulation there has given the stream ■ new ■ more eastwardly direction. This chart also ■ to illustrate the long received ideas of the progress of the shoals of fish. May not the glutinous matter ■ on the water, and which all persons who have been ■ the line must have noticed, be another cause of the phenomena of fish-shoals? May they not come in search of the food, which the matter ■ on the water in such abundance affords? The writer of this note has observed, that on entering the trade-winds, the ■ have judged of the change of wind approaching by the direction of the bonetta and other fish, which pass in shoals in the South Atlantic and South-eastern Seas, in ■ direction opposite to the wind; and when not opposite to the prevailing wind, they conclude ■ change to be ■ hand from the direction towards which the ■ go. The appearance of luminous floating matter

■ night is often followed by shoals of fish ; the spawn or gluten which the writer has had taken up in a bucket, has been often found as large ■ two inches diameter, and frequently induced ■ opinion that it ■ a species of maritime *cocoon* ■ of ■ animal ; fragments of irregular shaped gluten have been also often seen. An inquiry into the periodical appearance of these luminous substances, on voyages to the southward, and remarks on the usual direction of the shoals of bonetta and other fish, might perhaps lead to very interesting discoveries ; it might be assumed as a question worthy of examination, whether the direction of shoals of fish is not towards those points from which periodical winds or currents move the waters ; and if the shoals of fish which move from the north poles, and by the British isles across the Atlantic, ■ not led by their instincts in search of these periodical supplies of food ; and if the deposits made by the Gulph Stream on the banks of Newfoundland is not the true ■ of the great abundance of fish found there. (*Note by ■ American Gentleman.*)

ON THE PERNICIOUS QUALITY OF LEAD.—COLICA
PICTORUM FROM RAIN-WATER, &c.

. To B. VAUGHAN, ESQ.

DEAR FRIEND, *Philadelphia, July 31, 1835*

I recollect that when I had the great pleasure of seeing you at Southampton, twelve months since, we had a conversation on the bad effects of lead taken inwardly, and that at your request I promised to send you in writing, a particular account of several facts I then mentioned to you, of which you thought some good use might be made. I sit down to fulfil that promise.

The first thing I remember of this kind, was a general discourse in Boston, when I was a boy, of a complaint from North Carolina against New England rum, that it poisoned their people, giving them the dry belly-ache, with a loss of the strength of their limbs. The distilleries being examined on the occasion, it was found that several of them used leaden still heads and worms, and the physicians were of opinion that the mischief was occasioned by that use of lead. The legislature of the Massachusetts thereupon passed an act, prohibiting under severe penalties the use of such still heads and worms thereafter. Enclosed I send you a copy of the act, taken from my printed law book.

In 1724, being in London, I went to work in the printing-house of M^r. Palmer, Bartholomew Close, as a compositor. I there found a practice I had never seen before, of drying cases of types (which were wet in distribution) by placing it sloping before the fire. I found this had the additional advantage, when the types were not only dried but heated, of being comfortable to the hands working among them in cold weather. I therefore sometimes heated my case when the types did not want drying. But an old workman observing it, advised me not to do so, telling me, I might lose the use of my hands by it, as two of our companions had nearly done; one of whom, that used to earn his guinea a week, could not then make more than ten shillings; and the other, who had the dangles, but seven and sixpence. This, with a kind of obnoxious pain that I had sometimes felt, as it were in the bones of my hand, when working over the types made very hot, induced me to omit the practice. But talking afterwards with Mr. James, a letter-founder in the same close, and asking him if his people, who worked over the little furnaces of melted metal, were not subject to that disorder; he made light of any danger from the effluvia, but ascribed it to particles of the metal swallowed with their food by slovenly workmen, who went to their meals after handling the metal, without well washing their fingers, so that some of the metalline particles were taken off by their bread and eaten

with it. This appeared to have some reason in it. But the pain I had experienced, made me still afraid of those effluvia.

Being in Derbyshire at some of the furnaces for smelting of lead ore, I was told that the smoke of those furnaces was pernicious to the neighboring grass and other vegetables. But I do not recollect to have heard any thing of the effect of such vegetables eaten by animals. It may be well to make the inquiry.

In America, I have often observed that on the roofs of our shingled houses, where it is apt to grow in northern exposures, if there be any thing on the roof painted with white lead, such as balusters, or frames of dormant windows, &c. there is constantly a streak on the shingles from such paint down to the eaves, on which no moss will grow, but the wood remains constantly free from it. We seldom drink rain-water that falls on our houses; and if we did, perhaps the small quantity of lead descending from such paint, might not be sufficient to produce any sensible ill effect on our bodies. But I have been told of a case in Europe, I forget the place, where a whole family was afflicted with what we call the dry belly-ache, or *colica pictorum*, by drinking rain-water. It was at a country seat, which, being situated too high to have the advantage of a well, was supplied with water from a tank, which received the water from the leaded roofs. This had been drank several years without

mischief; but ~~some~~ young trees planted near the house, growing up above the roof, and shedding their leaves upon it, it was supposed an acid in those leaves had corroded the lead they covered, and furnished the water of that year with its baneful particles and qualities.

When I ~~was~~ in Paris with Sir John Pringle in 1767, he visited *La Charité*, a hospital particularly famous for the ~~cure~~ of that malady, and brought from thence a pamphlet containing a list of the ~~names~~ of persons, specifying their professions or trades, who had been cured there. I had the curiosity to examine that list, and found that ~~all~~ the patients were of trades that, ~~some~~ way or other, use or work in lead; such as plumbers, glaziers, painters, &c. excepting only two kinds, stone-cutters, and soldiers. These I could not reconcile to my notion, that lead was the ~~cause~~ of that disorder. But ~~on~~ my mentioning this difficulty to a physician of that hospital, he informed ~~me~~ that the stone-cutters ~~use~~ continually using melted lead to fix the ends of iron ballustrades in stone; and that the soldiers had been employed by painters, ~~and~~ laborers, in grinding of colors.

This, my dear friend, is all I ~~can~~ ~~at~~ present recollect on the subject. You will see by it, that the opinion of this mischievous effect from lead, ~~is~~ ~~at~~ least above sixty years old; and you will observe with concern, how long an useful truth may

be known, and exist, before it is generally received and practised on.

I am ever, yours most affectionately,

B. FRANKLIN.

ON THERMOMETERS.

Sept. 13, 1786.

THE two thermometers most generally in use at present among the philosophers of Europe, are those of Reaumur and Fahrenheit. The French use Reaumur's, the English Fahrenheit's.

In their respective graduations, Reaumur marked his freezing point 0, Fahrenheit fixed his at 32 of his degrees above 0, and two of his degrees are just equal to one of Reaumur's. I know that in some instruments this equality is not exact; but in two which I have, the one Reaumur's, made by Cappy in Paris, the other Fahrenheit's, by Nairne, London; it is precisely so, they hanging together in the same manner. And those workmen are famed for their exactness.

In reading, one frequently finds degrees of heat and cold mentioned, as measured by one or the other of those thermometers, and one is at a loss to reduce the least known to the other.

RULE.

Suppose the degree mentioned is 25 of Reaumur, which is 25 degrees above 0, or his freezing point, and you would know to what degree of Fahrenheit that answers;

Double the 25, which will give you 50 of Fahrenheit's, and to them add 32, his number at the freezing point, and you will have 82, the degree of Fahrenheit's equal to 25 of Reaumur.

On the contrary, if you would reduce Fahrenheit to Reaumur, first subtract 32, and then take half of the remainder; thus taking 32 from 82, there remains 50, and the half of 50 is 25.

This in all cases where the degree is above the freezing point.

If below, double the degrees of Reaumur, and subtract them from the 32 of Fahrenheit, which will give you the equivalent degree of his scale. Thus suppose it 10 below 0, the freezing point of Reaumur; twice 10 is 20, which deducted from 32, Fahrenheit's freezing point, gives you 12 the equivalent degree of his thermometer.

And halving the degrees of Fahrenheit that less than 32, you have the degree of Reaumur. Thus 40 of Fahrenheit being 10 degrees less than 32, the half of 10 is 5, the equivalent degree of Reaumur.

B. FRANKLIN.

ON BALLOONS—PIGEONS KILLED BY LIGHTNING.

To M. LE ROY.

Philadelphia, April 18, 1787.

MY DEAR OLD FRIEND,

I believe I have not written to you since I received your kind letters of July 26, and October 9, 1786. Such has been my continual occupation in public and private business, having the building of three houses upon my hands, that I had no time left for philosophical correspondence. I now take up my pen with the honest resolution of paying off some of my debts.

You mention that M. De Buffon *avoit des douleurs semblables à miennes*. I sympathise with him. Let me know in your next how he does. I do not understand these dispensations of Providence, though probably they are for the best. But it seems to me, that if you or I had the disposition of good and evil in this world, an excellent man would not have an hour's pain during his existence.

Your account of the progress made in the art of ballooning, by the acquisition of a tight *enveloppe*, and the art of descending and rising without throwing out ballast, and letting out air, is very pleasing. I am sorry the artists at *Javelle* do not continue their experiments. I always thought they were in the likeliest way of making improvements, as they were remote from interruption in their work.

periments. I have sometimes wished I had brought with me from France, a balloon sufficiently large to raise me from the ground. In my malady it would have been the most easy carriage for me, being led by a string held by a man walking on the ground. I should be glad to have Mr. Meunier's work. Pray let Mr. Grand know where he may buy it for me.

It gives me pleasure to hear of the [redacted] attending the conductors at Brest and at Dijon. Time will bring them [redacted] into use, and of [redacted] make them more useful.

It is a curious fact, that of the death of so many pigeons by lightning without disturbing their position. Pray when you see M. De Malesherbes, present to him my respects. He is [redacted] of the most respectable characters of this age.

Believe me ever, my dear friend, with the sincerest esteem and respect, yours most affectionately,

B. FRANKLIN.

ON THE UTILITY OF LIGHTNING CONDUCTORS.

TO M. LANDRIANI.

SIR, Philadelphia, Oct. 14, 1787.

I received by the hand of Mr. Gibbs your excellent dissertation, *dell' utilita dei conduttori elettrici*; which you have had the goodness to send me. I read it with great pleasure. Be pleased to accept my hearty thanks.

I find upon my return to this country, that the number of conductors is greatly increased ; their utility having been made manifest by many instances of their good effect in preserving buildings. Among others, my own house in my absence received a great stroke, which was visible to the neighbors, who immediately ran in to see if any damage was done, or any fire commenced, which might by their assistance be extinguished. They found nothing disordered, and the family only much frightened by the loudness of the explosion. On making ■ addition to my house last year, the conductor ■ taken down to be removed, when I found that the copper point which had been nine inches long, and in its thickest part about one-third of ■ inch in diameter, had been almost all melted and blown away, very little of it remaining attached to the iron rod. So that at length the invention has been of some use to the inventor, and afforded ■ additional pleasure to that of having ■ it useful to others. Mr. Rittenhause, our astronomer, informs me, that having inspected with his excellent telescope many conductors that are within his view, he finds that the points of a number of them have also been melted ; and ■ have ■ instance of any considerable damage done to any houses that ■ furnished with ■ complete conductor, and very few of damage to any other houses in this city since conductors became com-

With great esteem and respect, I have the honor to be, sir, your most obedient and most humble servant,
B. FRANKLIN.

ON THE EARTH'S MAGNETISM, &c.

TO THE HON. J. BOWDOIN, Esq.

DEAR SIR, *Philadelphia, May 31, 1788.*

■ ■ ■ * * *

OUR ancient correspondence used to have something philosophical in it. As you ■ now more free from public cares, and I expect to be so in ■ few months, why may we not ■ that kind of correspondence? Our much regretted friend Winthrop once made me the compliment, that I ■ good at starting game for philosophers. Let me try if I can start a little for you.

Has the question, How came the earth by its magnetism, ever been considered?

Is it likely that iron ■ immediately existed when this globe was first formed, ■ may it not rather be supposed a gradual production of time?

If the earth is at present magnetical in virtue of the ■ of iron ore contained in it, might not ■ ages pass before it had magnetic polarity?

Since iron ■ may exist without the polarity, and by being placed in certain circumstances, may obtain it from ■ external cause; is it not possible that the earth received its magnetism from some such cause?

In short, may not ■ magnetic power exist throughout ■ system, perhaps through all systems, so that if ■ could make ■ voyage in the starry regions, ■ compass might be of use? And may not such universal magnetism with its uniform direction, be serviceable in keeping the diurnal revolution of a planet more steady to the same axis?

Lastly, ■ the poles of magnets may be changed by the presence of stronger magnets, might not in ancient times the ■ passing of ■ large comet of greater magnetic power than this globe of ours, have been ■ of changing its poles, and thereby wracking and deranging its surface, placing in different regions the effect of centrifugal force, ■ as to raise the waters of the ■ in some, while they were depressed in others?

Let me add another question or two, not relating indeed to magnetism, but however, to the theory of the earth.

Is not the finding of great quantities of shells and bones of animals (natural to hot climates) in the cold ones of our present world, some proof that its poles have been changed?

Is not the supposition that the poles have been changed, the easiest way of accounting for the deluge, by getting rid of the old difficulty how to dispose of its waters after it ■ over? since if the poles were again to be changed, and placed in the present equator, the sea would ■ there about 15

miles in height, and rise as much in the present polar regions: and the effect would be proportionable if the poles were placed anywhere between the present and the equator.

Does not the apparent wrack of the surface of this globe, thrown up into long ridges of mountains with strata in various positions, make it probable, that its internal mass is a fluid, but a fluid more dense than to float the heaviest of terrestrial substances? Do we know the limit of condensation air is capable of? Supposing it to grow denser *within* the surface, in the same proportion nearly as we find it does *without*, at what depth may it be equal in density with gold?

Can we easily conceive how the strata of the earth could have been so deranged, if it had not been a mere shell supported by a heavier fluid? Would not such a supposed internal fluid globe be immediately sensible of a change in the situation of the earth's axis, alter its form, and thereby burst the shell, and throw up parts of it above the rest; as if we could alter the position of the fluid contained in the shell of an egg, and place its longest diameter where the shortest is, the shell must break; but would be much harder to break if the whole internal substance were as solid and hard as the shell?

Might not a volcano be any volcano raised in this supposed internal ocean of extremely dense fluid, raise in some degree as it passes the present shell.

of incumbent earth, and break it in some places, as in earthquakes? And may not the progress of such wave, and the disorders it occasions among the solids of the shell, account for the rumbling sound being first heard at ■ distance, augmenting as it approaches, and gradually dying away as it proceeds? ■ circumstance observed by the inhabitants of South America in their last great earthquake, that noise coming from ■ place some degrees north of Lima, and being traced by inquiry quite down to Buenos Ayres, proceeding regularly from north to south, at the rate of ■ leagues per minute, ■ I ■ informed by ■ very ingenious Peruvian whom I met with at Paris.

I am ever, my very dear friend, yours most affectionately,

B. FRANKLIN.

DESCRIPTION OF ■■■■■ TO BE ■■■■■
IN MAKING LARGE SHEETS OF PAPER IN THE
CHINESE MANNER, WITH ONE ■■■■■ SUR-
FACE.*

IN Europe to have a large surface of paper connected together and smooth ■■■ side, the following operations are performed.

1. A number of small sheets ■■■ to be made separately.

* Communicated by Dr. Franklin to the American Philosophical Society, ■ which it ■ read, June 20, 1788.

2. These ■■■ to be couched, one by one, between blankets.

3. When a heap is formed it must be put under a strong press, to force out the water.

4. Then the blankets ■■■ to be taken away, one by one, and the sheets hung up to dry.

5. When dry they are to be again pressed, or if to be sized, they must be dipped into size made of ■■■■ water, in which glue and alum ■■■ dissolved.

6. They must then be pressed again to force out the superfluous size.

7. They must then be hung up a second time to dry, which, if the air happens to be damp, requires some days.

8. They must then be taken down, laid together, and again pressed.

9. They must be pasted together at their edges.

10. The whole must be glazed by labor, with ■ flint.

In China, if they would make sheets, suppose of four and ■ half ells long and ■■■ and a half ells wide, they have two large vats, each five ells long and two ells wide, made of brick, lined with ■ plaster that holds water. In these the stuff is mixed ready to work.

Between these vats is built a kiln or stove, with two inclining sides: each side something larger than the sheet of paper; they ■■■ covered with ■ fine stucco that takes a polish, and are ■ con-

trived ■ to be well heated by ■ small fire circulating in the walls.

The mould ■ made with thin but deep sides, that it may be both light and stiff: it is suspended at each end with cords that pass over pulleys fastened to the ceiling, their ends connected with a counterpoise nearly equal the weight of the mould.

Two men, one at each end of the mould, lifting it out of the water by the help of the counterpoise, turn it and apply it with the stuff to the smooth surface of the stove, against which they press it, to force out great part of the water through the wires. The heat of the wall ■ evaporates the rest, and a boy takes off the dried sheet by rolling it up. The side next the stove receives the even polish of the stucco, and is thereby better fitted to receive the impression of fine prints. If ■ degree of sizing is required, ■ decoction of rice is mixed with the stuff in the vat.

Thus the great sheet is obtained, smooth and sized, and ■ number of the European operations saved.

As the stove has two polished sides, and there ■ two vats, the same operation is at the ■ time performed by two other ■ at the other vat; and ■ fire ■

NEW AND CURIOUS THEORY OF LIGHT AND HEAT.

ADDRESSED TO DAVID RITTENHOUSE, ESQ.

Nov. 20, 1788.

UNIVERSAL space, as far as we know of it, seems to be filled with a subtle fluid, whose motion, or vibration, is called light.

This fluid may possibly be the same with that which, being attracted by, and entering into other more solid matter, dilates the substance by separating the constituent particles, and so rendering some solids fluid, and maintaining the fluidity of others; of which fluid, when our bodies are totally deprived, they are said to be frozen; when they have a proper quantity, they are in health, and able to perform all their functions; it is then called natural heat: when too much, it is called fever; and when forced into the body in too great a quantity from without, it gives pain, by separating and destroying the flesh, and is then called burning, and the fluid entering and acting is called fire.

While organised bodies, animal and vegetable, are augmenting in growth, and supplying their continual waste, is not this done by attracting and consolidating this fluid called fire, so as to form of it a part of their substance? And is it not a separation of the parts of such substance which, dis-

solving its solid state, sets that subtle fluid ■ liberty, when it again makes its appearance as fire?

For the power of ■■■ relative to matter, ■■■■ limited to the separating or mixing the various kinds of it, or changing its form and appearance by different compositions of it; but does not extend to the making or creating ■■■ matter, or annihilating the old. Thus, if fire be ■ original element or kind of matter, its quantity is fixed and permanent in the universe. We cannot destroy any part of it, or make addition to it; we can only separate it from that which confines it, and so set it at liberty; as when we put wood in a situation to be burnt, or transfer it from ■■■ solid to another, as when we make lime by burning stone, a part of the fire dislodged in the fuel being left in the stone. May not this fluid, when at liberty, be capable of penetrating and entering into all bodies, organised or not, quitting easily in totality those not organised, and quitting easily in part those which are; the part assumed and fixed remaining till the body is dissolved? .

Is it not this fluid which keeps asunder the particles of air, permitting them to approach, or separating them more, in proportion ■ its quantity is diminished ■ augmented?

Is it not the greater gravity of the particles of air, which forces the particles of this fluid to mount

with the matters to which it is attached, as smoke or vapor?

Does it not seem to have a greater affinity with water, since it will quit a solid to unite with that fluid, and go off with it in vapor, leaving the solid cold to the touch, and the degree measurable by the thermometer?

The vapor rises attached to this fluid, but at a certain height they separate, and the vapor descends in rain, retaining but little of it, in snow or hail less. What becomes of that fluid? Does it rise above the atmosphere, and mix with the universal mass of the same kind?

Or does a spherical stratum of it, denser, as less mixed with air, attracted by this globe, and repelled or pushed up only to a certain height from its surface, by the greater weight of air, remain there surrounding the globe, and proceeding with it round the sun?

In such case, is there may be a continuity and communication of this fire through the air quite down to the earth, is it not by the vibrations given to it by the sun, that light appears to us? And may it not be, that every particle of the infinitely small vibrations, striking matter with a certain force, enters its substance, is held there by attraction, and augmented by succeeding vibrations, till the matter has received as much of their force as it can drive into it?

Is it not thus, that the surface of this globe is continually heated by such repeated vibrations in the day, and cooled by the escape of the heat when those vibrations ■■ discontinued in the night, ■■ intercepted and reflected by clouds ?

Is it not thus, that fire is amassed and makes the greatest part of the substance of combustible bodies ?

Perhaps, when this globe ■■■ first formed, and its original particles took their place at certain distances from the centre, in proportion to their greater or less gravity, the fluid fire, attracted towards that centre, might in great part be obliged, as lightest, to take place above the rest, and thus form the sphere of fire above supposed, which would afterwards be continually diminishing by the substance it afforded to organised bodies, and the quantity restored to it again, by the burning ■■ other separating of the parts of those bodies.

Is not the natural heat of animals thus produced, by separating in digestion the parts of food, and setting their fire at liberty ?

Is it not this sphere of fire which kindles the wandering globes that sometimes pass through it in ■■■ course round the sun, have their surface kindled by it, and burst when their included air is greatly rarefied by the heat ■■■ their burning surfaces ?

May it not have been from *such* considerations that the ancient philosophers supposed ■ sphere of fire to exist above the air of our atmosphere?

B. FRANKLIN.

INDEX

TO THE SELECT WRITINGS.

- Account of a Toad found in the solid of a Stone Quarry,
vol. 2, 307
- Account of a species of Moth that lived 71 days after its
head ■■■ cut off, v. 2, 309
- Account of a Three-Wheeled Clock, v. 2, 353
- Advantages of Stoves that draw downwards, v. 2, 408
- Advice to a young Tradesman, v. 1, 104
- Advice to those who are about to undertake a Sea Voyage,
v. 1, 123
- Air, ■■ Essay on the free Use of, v. 2, 172—Moist Air not
unhealthy, v. 2, 258
- Albany Papers, v. 1, ■■■
- America, the internal State of, v. 1, 144
- America, Information to those who would ■■■■ to, v. 1,
131
- America, Comparison of her Credit and that of Great Britain,
v. 1, 462
- American Discontents before 1768, Causes of, v. 1, 373
- American Paper-Money, Remarks relative thereto, v. 1, 356
—State of, v. 1, 473
- American Politics prior to the Independence of the United
States, 1776, v. 1, ■■■
- Do. subsequent to 1776, v. 1, 457

- Analogy between Magnetism ■ Electricity, v. 2, 219
 Animals, Effect of Lightning on the Eyes of, v. 2, 496
 Animal Food rendered tender by Electricity, v. 2, 228
 Answer ■ Mons. Dubourg's Queries respecting the Armonica, v. 2, 148
 Answers to Queries ■ the Art of Swimming, v. 2, 233
 Apologue, v. 1, ■
 Arabian Tale, v. 1, 250
 Armonica, ■ musical Instrument. Description of it, v. 2, 141—Answer to Mons. Dubourg's Questions relative to the Armonica, v. 2, 148
 Articles of Belief and Acts of Religion, v. 1, 1
 Astronomical Conjectures, v. 2, 164
 Attempt ■ explain the Effects of Lightning ■ the Vane of the Steeple of ■ Church in Cremona, v. 2, 278
 Aurora Borealis, Suppositions and Conjectures relative thereto, v. 2, 291

 Bagatelles, 307—To the Abbé Morellet, v. 1, 216—To the Abbé de La Roche, v. 1, ■
 Balloons, their probable importance, v. 2, 334—v. 2, 495
 Beccaria, Letter ■ him on the Armonica, v. 2, 141
 Belief, Articles of, and Acts of Religion, v. 1, 1
 Bible, Proposed ■ Version of the, v. 1, 219
 Bodies, Gravitation of Bodies affected by the Sun and Moon, v. 2, 358
 Boroughs in England, Elective Franchises enjoyed by the small, v. 2, 129
 Bowdoin, ■ new Method of warming Rooms, addressed to Mr. James, v. 2, 396
 Brotherly Love, ■ Parable, v. 1, ■
 Busy-Body, No. 1, v. 1, 24—No. 2, v. 1, 28—No. 3, v. 1, 30—No. 4, v. 1, 35—No. 5, v. 1, 44—No. 8, v. 1, ■

- Catechism relative to the National Debt of Great Britain, v. 1, 471
- Causes of American Discontents before 1768, v. 1, 373
- Celsus, Remarks — Quotations from, v. 2, ■■■
- Chimnies, a Philosophical Treatise on, v. 2, 161 — Causes of Smoky Chimnies, v. 2, 359
- Chess, the Morals of, v. 1, 242
- China, Provisions made to prevent Famine in, v. 2, ■■■
- Clock, ■■■ account of a Three-Wheeled, v. 2, ■■■
- Coal, Nature of Sea, v. 2, 232
- Coin, Reflections thereon, v. 2, ■■■
- Cold, Hints for preventing Catching Cold, v. 2, 239 — Causes of Colds, v. 2, 255
- Colonies, Plan of ■■■ proposed Union of the several, v. 1, 305 — Number of Members returned for each, v. 1, 310 — State of the Constitution, v. 1, 402
- Comet seen in Yorkshire, 1783, v. 2, 332
- Congress, Vindication and Offer from Congress ■■■ Parliament in 1775, v. 1, 448
- Constitution, State of the Constitution of the Colonies by Governor Pownall, v. 1, ■■■
- Conte, ■■■ M. Montresor, v. 1, 248 — Translation of the same, v. 1, 249
- Corn, Observations ■■■ the Price thereof, v. 2, 25
- Countries distant and unimproved, Plan for benefiting, v. 2, 49
- Credit of Great Britain and America compared, v. 1, ■■■
- Criminal Laws, Remarks on the, v. 2, 119
- Dalrymple and Franklin's Plan for benefiting distant unprovided Countries, v. 2, ■■■
- Dead Bodies, Essay on their long Retention of Infection, v. 2, ■■■

- Death occasioned by Lightning, ■■■■■ of, v. 2, 225
- Debt of England, Catechism relative thereto, v. 1, 471
- Description of ■ Stove for burning Pit-Coal and consuming all ■ Smoke, v. 2, 407
- Dialogue between Britain, France, Spain, Holland, Saxony, and America, v. 1, 457
- Dialogue between Philocles and Horatio, v. 1, 62—Second Dialogue between Philocles and Horatio, v. 1, 69
- Dialogue between Franklin and the Gout, v. 1, 251
- Discoveries, Remarks thereon, v. 1, 95
- Distilleries, pernicious effects of Lead in the same, v. 2, 159—v. 2, 489
- Dreams, the Art of procuring pleasant, v. 1, 224
- Drinking Songs, ■ Dissertation ou, v. 1, 289—v. 2, 148
- Dubourg, Answer to his Queries respecting the Armonica, v. 2, 148—On the rec Use of Air, to the same, v. 2, 172
- Earth, the Abbé Soulavie's Notes on the Theory thereof, v. 2, 315—On the Magnetism of the Earth, v. 2, 498
- Economical Project, addressed to the Editors of the Journal of Paris, v. 1, ■■■■
- Education, ■ Petition to those who have the Superintendency of, v. 1, ■■■■
- Election of Members of Congress, v. 1, 309
- Elective Franchises enjoyed by small Boroughs in England, vol. 2, 129
- Electricity of Fogs, account thereof, v. 2, 154—Conjectures on Electricity, v. 2, 219—Analogy between Magnetism and Electricity, v. 2, 219—Meat rendered tender by Electricity, v. 2, 228—Queries on Electricity by Dr. Ingenhausz, ■■■■ Franklin's Answers, v. 2, 310—Electrical Experiments, v. 2, 321—Electrical ■■■■ ■■■■ Density

- of Glass, v. 2, 322—Patent Electrical Machine, v. 2, 324
 Further Electrical Experiments, v. 2, 353
 Elephants natives of America, Conjectures relative thereto,
 v. 2, 157
 Emigration, Remarks ■ an Act of the British Parliament to
 discourage Emigration, v. 1, 435
 English School, Sketch of ■ English School submitted to
 the consideration of the Trustees of the Philadelphia Aca-
 demy, v. 1, 165
 Ephemeris, ■ Emblem of Human Life, v. 1, 231
 Epitaph on Miss Shipley's Squirrel Mungo, v. 1, 223
 Essays on various Subjects, v. 1, 24
 Do. on Philosophical Subjects, v. 2, 141
 Experiments on the Utility of long-pointed Rods for securing
 Buildings from Lightning, v. 2, 197

 Fahrenheit's Thermometer explained with respect to its dif-
 ference from Reaumur's, v. 2, 493
 Famine in China, mode of preventing, v. 2, 60
 Felons, Letter to the Pennsylvania Gazette, on Great Britain
 sending them to America, v. 1, 444
 Fire, Observation and Conjectures on the Nature of, v. 2,
 149, 336
 Fogs, Treatise ■ the Electricity of, v. 2, 154
 Franklin's Answer ■ Strahan's Queries, v. 1, 388—Remarks
 on Governor Pownall's State of the Constitution of the
 Colonies, v. 1, 402—Preface to the Votes and Proceed-
 ings of the Freeholders of Boston, v. 1, 414—Rules for
 reducing ■ great Empire to a small one, v. 1, 421—Letter
 ■ ■ Public Advertiser ■ ■ Act ■ discourage Emi-
 gration, v. 1, 435—Letter to the Pennsylvania Gazette,
 on sending felons ■ America, v. 1, 444—Dialogue be-
 ■ ■ Britain, France, Spain, Holland, &c. v. 1, 457—

Observations ■ the Increase of Mankind, peopling Coun-
 tries, &c. v. 2, 1—Observations ■ ■ Price of Corn
 and of the Management of the Poor, v. 2, 25—On Smug-
 gling, v. 2, 34—Observations ■ War, v. 2, 40—On the
 laboring Poor, v. 2, 43—Plan for benefiting distant unpro-
 vided Countries, v. 2, 49—On the Institution in Holland
 ■ prevent Poverty, v. 2, 54—Positions ■ ■ examined,
 v. 2, 57—Note respecting Trade and Manufactures, v. 2,
 61—Notions concerning Trade and Merchants, v. 2, 62—
 Principles of Trade, v. 2, 65—Reflections ■ Coin, v. 2,
 98—Thoughts concerning the Sugar Islands, v. 2, 107—
 Opinion ■ the Right of Impressing Seamen, v. 2, 109—
 Remarks on the Criminal Laws, and on the practice of
 Privateering, v. 2, 119—On the Elective Franchise ■
 joyed by small Boroughs in England, v. 2, 129—Answer
 ■ the Abbé Morellet relative to the Militia, v. 2, 135—
 Project for preventing Wars, v. 2, 137—Some good Whig
 Principles, v. 2, 138—Articles of Belief and Acts of Re-
 ligion, v. 1, 1—Parable against Persecution, in Scripture
 language, v. 1, 11—On Persecution in former ages—of
 Dissenters—State of Toleration, v. 1, 13—A Parable on
 Brotherly Love, v. 1, 21—Writes under the signature of
 the Busy-Body, v. 1, 24—Dialogue between Philocles ■
 Horatio, v. 1, 62—Second Dialogue, v. 1, 69—Public
 Men, Remarks on, v. 1, 77—Self-denial ■ the Essence
 of Virtue, v. 1, 84—On the Usefulness of ■ Mathematics,
 v. 1, 87—On true Happiness, v. 1, 92—On general Dis-
 coveries, v. 1, 95—On the Waste of Life, v. 1, 100—
 Advice to a young Tradesman, v. 1, 104—Hints to those
 who would ■ rich, v. 1, 107—The way ■ make money
 plenty, v. 1, 108—Way ■ Wealth, v. 1, 110—Thoughts
 concerning ■ Medals to ■ struck by order of Congress,
 v. 1, 122—Precautions ■ ■ who are about to undertake

■ Voyage, v. 1, 125—Information ■ those who would remove ■ America, v. 1, 131—The internal State of America ■ 1784, v. 1, 144—Remarks ■ the Savages in North America, v. 1, 152—Observations on Indian Corn, v. 1, 162—Sketch of an English School, v. 1, 165—Observations relative to the Intention of the Founders of ■ Philadelphia Academy, v. 1, 174—Account of ■ Supreme Court of Judicature in Pennsylvania, v. 1, 210—The Levée, v. 1, 216—Apologue, v. 1, 220—Epitaph on Miss Shipley's Squirrel, v. 1, 223—Art of producing pleasant Dreams, v. 1, 224—Ephemera, ■ emblem of Human Life, v. 1, 231—The Whistle, v. 1, 243—Petition to those who have the Superintendence of Education, v. 1, 237—Handsome and Deformed Leg, v. 1, 239—Morals of Chess, v. 1, 242—Conte, v. 1, 248—An Arabian Tale, v. 1, 250—Dialogue between Franklin and the Gout, v. 1, 251—Letter to Madame Helvetius, v. 1, 260, 261—Petition presented to Madame Helvetius by her Cats, v. 1, 275—Bagatelle to the Abbé de la Roche, v. 1, 284—To the Abbé Morellet, v. 1, 216—An Economical Project, v. 1, 292—Account of the Armonica, v. 2, 141—Answer to ■ Queries respecting the Armonica, v. 2, 148—Remarks ■ Fire, v. 2, 149—Electricity of Fogs, v. 2, 154—Conjectures respecting the Elephant, v. 2, 157—On ■ Colica Pictorum, v. 2, 239—On Chimnies, v. 2, 359—On Astronomical and Electrical Subjects, v. 2, 353—On ■ Free Use of Air, v. 2, 172—Treatise ■ Ventilation, v. 2, 173—Observations on Rain, v. 2, 194—Observations on the Spots in the Sun, v. 2, 216—On the Choice of Glass for ■ Leyden Experiment, v. 1, 223—On Death from Lightning, v. 2, 225—On rendering Meat tender by Electricity, v. 2, 228—Nature of Sea Coal, v. 2, 232—On Swimming, v. 2, 233—Stoves for Public Buildings, v. 2,

237—On catching Cold, v. 2, 239—On Causes of Colds, v. 2, 241—Moist Air not unhealthy, v. 2, 258—Toads, some account of, v. 2, 307—Answer to Ingenhauz's Queries, v. 2, 310—On the Theory of the Earth, v. 2, 315—Experiments in Electricity, v. 2, 321—Remarks on Mr. Nairn's Patent Electrical Machine, v. 2, 324—Improvements suggested in the Hygrometer, v. 2, 325—On the Comet in Yorkshire in 1783, v. 2, 332—On Balloons, v. 2, 334—Gravitation of Bodies affected by the Sun and Moon, v. 2, 358—Attempt to explain the Effects of Lightning, v. 2, 278—Aurora Borealis, v. 2, 291—On Retention of Infection in Dead Bodies, v. 2, 496—On Heat Conductors, v. 2, 303—On Warming Rooms, addressed to James Bowdoin, v. 2, 396—Invents a Stove to its Smoke, v. 2, 497—Also another Stove to draw downwards, v. 2, 408—Improvements in Navigation, addressed to Mons. Le Roy, v. 2, 431

Glass for the Leyden Experiment, on the Choice of, v. 2, 223

Glass, the Density of, v. 2,

Gout, a Dialogue between Franklin and the, v. 1, 251

Gravitation of Bodies affected by the Sun and Moon, v. 2, 358

Great Britain, a Comparison of the State of the Credit of America of, v. 1, 462

Gulph Stream, Observations on the, v. 2, 476

Happiness, an Essay on true, v. 1,

Heat, the Conductors of, v. 2, 303

Helvetius, Letters on Madame, v. 1, 260, 261. 263. 265—

The Cats' Petition to, v. 1,

Hints to those who would rich, v. 1, 107

prevent catching Cold, v. 2, 239

Horatio and Philocles, a Dialogue between, v. 1, 62—A Second Dialogue between, v. 1, 69

Hygrometer, curious Discovery relative to the, v. 2, 109

Impressing Seamen, Franklin's opinion on the right of, v. 2, 109

Improvements in Navigation, v. 2, 431

Increase of Mankind, observations thereon, v. 2, 1

Indian Corn, observations on, v. 1, 162

Infection in dead bodies, Cause of the long retention of, v. 2, 109

Information to those who would migrate to America, v. 1, 131

Ingenhausz, Dr., Project for preventing War, in a letter to, v. 2, 137

Electrical Queries, with Franklin's Answers, v. 2, 310

Jackson's Observations on Franklin's Remarks on the Increase of Mankind, v. 2, 11

Job, Parody on the first chapter of the book of, v. 1, 219

La Roche, Abbé, Letter to, and Drinking Song, v. 1, 109

Lead in Distilleries, the pernicious effects thereof, v. 2, 159, 489

Leg, the Handsome and Deformed, v. 1, 109

Le Roy, Improvements in Navigation, to Monsieur, v. 2, 431

Letter to the Abbé Morellet (*la vérité dans le vin*) v. 1, 289

Levée, a paraphrase on the book of Job called the, v. 1, 216

Leyden Experiment, the choice of Glass for the, v. 2, 223

Life, Essay on the, v. 1, 109

Light ■ Heat, ■ and curious Theory of, v. 2, ■
Lightning, on Death occasioned by, v. 2, ■
Lightning Conductors at Purfleet, Report ■ the, v. 2, 197
—Experiments on, v. 2, 203—Remarks on, v. 2, 260—
Effects of Lightning on the Eyes of Animals, v. 2, 496—
■ of Lightning on the Steeple of a Church ■ Cre-
mona, v. 2, 278

Magnetism ■ Electricity, analogy between, v. 2, 219
Magnetism of the Earth, v. 2, 315. 498
Mankind, Observations on the Increase of, v. 2, 1—Jackson's
Remarks ■ the same, v. 2, 11
Mathematics, on the usefulness of the, v. 1, 87
Maxims, Poor Richard's, v. 1, 110
Meat rendered tender by Electricity, v. 2, 228
Mechanics, effects of Lead on various handicraft, v. 2, 489
Medals ordered to be struck by Congress, v. 1, 122
Merchants and Trade, Franklin's notions of, v. 2, 62
Meteorological and Physical Conjectures, v. 2, 337. 341, ■
seq.
Militia preferable ■ Regular Troops, v. 2, 135
Miscellanies, v. 1, 1
■ Air not unhealthy, v. 2, ■
Money, the Way to make Money plenty, v. 1, ■
Morals of Chess, v. 1, ■
Morellet's Questions to Dr. Franklin relative ■ ■ Militia,
v. 2, 135
Moths, called Muskitoe Hawks, singular ■ of, v. 2, ■
Navigation, Improvements in, addressed ■ Mons. Le Roy,
v. 2, 431
Nairn's Patent Electrical Machine, account of, v. 2, ■
National Debt of England, a Catechism relative ■ the, v. 1, 471

New Theory of Light and Heat, v. 2, 504

Observations on the Increase of Mankind, peopling Countries, &c. v. 1, 1—On ■ Spots in the Sun, v. 2, 216—Observations made ■ board the Pennsylvania Packet, v. 2, 479—Observations on the Gulph Stream, v. 2, 476. 151. 261.

■ seq.

Oil ■ Water, curious instance of the Effect of, v. 2, 261. 263.

■ seq.

Orphan School in Philadelphia, Remarks on, v. 1, ■

Oxley, indicted for an Assault, v. 1, 480

Paper, ■ Method of making large Sheets of, v. 2, 501

Paper-Money, Remarks on American, v. 1, 356—State of the same, v. 1, 473

Parable on Brotherly Love, v. 1, 21

——— against Persecution, in imitation of Scripture language, v. 1, 11

Pennsylvania, account of its Supreme Court of Judicature, THE PRESS, v. 1, 210

Persecution in former ages, v. 1, 13

Philadelphia Academy, original intention of the Founders thereof, v. 1, 174

Philocles and Horatio, ■ Dialogue, v. 1, 62—A second Dialogue, v. 1, 69

Physical and Meteorological Conjectures, v. 2, 341

Pigeons killed by Lightning, v. 2, 495

Pit-coal, Description of a newly-invented Stove for burning, v. 2, 407

Plan for settling two Western Colonies in North America, v. 1, ■

Plan for benefiting Distant Unprovided Countries, v. 2, ■

Politics ■ Commerce, v. 2, 1

- Poor, Remarks on the Management of the, v. 2, 25—On ■
 Laboring, v. 2, ■
- Poor Richard's Maxims, v. 1, 110
- Positions to be examined, v. 2, 57
- Poverty, Remarks ■ the Institution in Holland to prevent,
 v. 2, 54
- Powder Magazines at Purfleet, Report on the Lightning Con-
 ductors at the, v. 2, 197
- Pownall's State of the Constitution of the Colonies, with
 Franklin's Remarks, v. 1, ■
- Principles of Trade, by Whately and Franklin, v. 2, 65
- Pringle, Effects of Oil ■ Water, in a letter addressed to Dr.,
 v. 2, 261—His account of a species of Moth, that lived
 seventy-one days after its head was cut off, v. 2, 309
- Privateering, Remarks thereon, v. 2, 119
- Provisions made in China against Famine, v. 2, 60
- Public Men, Remarks on, v. 1, 77
- Purfleet, Report on the Lightning Conductors there, v. 2, 197
- Queries from Mr. Strahan to Dr. Franklin, with his Answers,
 v. 1, 388. 391
- Rain, Observations on, v. 2, 194
- Reasons and Motives ■ which the plan of Union of ■ Co-
 lonies ■■ formed, v. 1, ■
- Reasons against Partial Unions, v. 1, ■
- Reaumur's Thermometer compared with Fahrenheit's, v. 2,
 495
- Religious Subjects, v. 1, 1
- Remarks ■ ■ Plan of Union with the Colonies, v. 1, 331
- Remarks and Facts relative to American Paper-Money, v. 1,
 ■
- Retort Courteous, v. 1, 480

INDEX.

- Rittenhouse, Observations on the Nature of Fire, addressed
 ■ Mr., v. 2, 149
- Roche, Bagatelle addressed to the Abbé, v. 1, 284
- Rooms, a ■ Method of Warming, v. 2, 396
- Rules for reducing ■ Great Empire to ■ Small One, presented
 to ■ late Minister, v. 1, 421
- Salt Water rendered fresh by Distillation, (note, v. 2, 467)
- Savages of North America, Remarks concerning, v. 1, ■
- Seamen, Remarks ■ Judge Foster's Report on Impressed,
 v. 2, 109
- Sea Coal, Essay ■ the Nature of, v. 2, ■
- Sea Voyage, Advice to those about to undertake one, v. 1, 123
- Sea, Waves of the, stilled by Oil, v. 2, 261. 263. et seq.
- Self-denial not the Essence of Virtue, v. 1, 84
- Shirley, Governor, three Letters addressed to him, concerning
 the Imposition of direct Taxes on the Colonies, v. 1, 332.
- Sketch of an English School, v. 1, 165
- Small's (Dr.) Letter to Franklin ■ ■ quotation from Celsus,
 v. 2, 252
- Smoky Chimnies, on the causes of, v. 2, 339
- Smuggling, and its Various Species, v. 2, ■
- Songs, a Dissertation ■ Drinking Songs, v. 1, ■
- Soulavie's Notes ■ the Theory of the Earth, v. 2, 493
- Staffordshire Chimnies, description of, v. 2, ■
- State of the Constitution of the Colonies, by Governor Pow-
 nall, v. 1, ■
- Stoves for Public Buildings, Remarks on, v. 2, 237—Newly-
 invented, v. 2, 297—Stove for burning Pit-coal, ■
 consuming its ■ Smoke, v. 2, 407—Stove which draws
 downwards, v. 2, ■
- Strahan's Queries ■ Dr. Franklin, with ■ Doctor's Answers,
 v. 1, 388. 391

Sugar Islands, Thoughts concerning them, v. 2, 107
Sun, Observations ■ the Spots in the, v. 2, 216
Sun and Moon, Gravitation of Bodies ■ by the, v. 2,

Supremest Court of Judicature, the Press, v. 1, 210
Swimming, Answers to Queries on the Art of, v. 2, 283

Theory of the Earth, Notes on the, v. 2, 315
Thermometers, general Remarks on, v. 2, 493—Rules for
calculating the difference between Fahrenheit's and Reau-
mur's, v. 2, 495
Toad, found in the solid of a Stone-quarry, v. 2, 307
Toleration, state of, amongst the Dissenters, v. 1, 13
Trade and Manufactures, Note respecting the same, v. 2, 61
—Notions concerning Trade and Merchants, v. 2, 62—
Principles of Trade, v. 2, 65
Tradesman, Advice to a young, v. 1, 104

Various Subjects, Essays on, v. 1, 24
Ventilation, a Treatise on, v. 2, 173
Vindication and Offer from Congress to Parliament in 1775,
v. 1, .

Union, Reasons against Partial, v. 1, ■
Union of the Colonies, plan proposed, v. 1, ■

War, Observations thereon, v. 2, 40—Project for preventing,
v. 2, 137
Warming of Rooms, by a new method, v. 2, 396
Way ■ Wealth clearly shows, or Poor Richard's Maxims,
v. 1, 110
Western Colonies in North America, plan for settling ■ ■
the ■ v. 2. ■

- Wine, pleasant dissertation ■ the word, v. 1, ■
- Winthrop, Astronomical and Electrical Conjectures, addressed to him, v. 2, 164
- Whately and Franklin's Principles of Trade explained, v. 2, ■
- Whig Principles, recommended by Franklin ■ good, v. 2, 138
- Whistle, the, ■ *plaisanterie*, v. 1, ■
- Wyvill, Sir Charles, Letter to him on the Elective Franchise enjoyed by the small Boroughs in England, v. 2, 129
- Wyvill's Answer to Dr. Franklin ■ the Elective Franchise, &c. v. 2, 133

